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Munimenta Antiqua; or, Obſervations on Antient Caſtles. Including Remarks on the whole Progreſs of Architecture, Eccleſiaſtical, as well as Military, in Great Britain: and on the correſponding Changes, in Manners, Laws, and Cuſtoms. Tending both to illuſtrate modern Hiſtory: and to elucidate many intereſting Paſſages in various antient claſſic Authors. By Edward King, Eſq. F. R. S. and A. S. Vol. I. Folio. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Nicol.

WHATEVER may be the public opinion of this author's pious eccentricities in his attempts to illuſtrate the Scriptures, his papers on ancient caſtles, publiſhed in different numbers of the Archæologia, are favorable monuments of his ſkill in antiquities. We therefore took up the preſent work with conſiderable expectations of entertainment, though not a little ſurpriſed to find a vaſt folio entitled Vol. I. The idea of a ſecond folio on ſuch a ſubject ſtruck us as the exceſs of prolixity. We leave our readers, therefore, to judge of our ſurpriſe on finding that the author, in his preface, promiſes no leſs than four ſimilar volumes! As Mr. King is a religious man, we wiſh to remind him of the ſevere account that will hereafter be demanded of him who makes uſe of *idle words*; of which certainly no work ever preſented a greater number than the publication before us. We ſhall, however, in the preſent inſtance conſider the author merely as an antiquary; and in ſo doing we beg leave to remind him that one of the grand merits of his papers on ancient caſtles was their brevity, and that he could not more deplorably have diſappointed the expectation of thoſe who have hitherto been pleaſed with him than by this unexpected tranſition to the moſt diffuſe and tedious prolixity.

The learned author, well aware that his papers on ancient caſtles have been well received, ſeems, on *this* account, principally to have extended that title to the preſent work: for the

firſt chapter alone, and indeed only a part of this chapter, has any connection with the ſubject of ancient caſtles. The remainder, or about nine-tenths of the whole volume, conſiſts of repetitions of the viſionary doctrines of Stukeley, Borlaſe, and others, concerning what are called druidic monuments, though there be no real ancient teſtimony concerning druidic monuments whatever. Nor is the word *munimenta* unobjectionable; for though in claſſical latinity *munimentum* imply a caſtle or fortification, yet as the greater part of Mr. King's book muſt refer to what are called the middle ages, he ſhould have reflected that in the language of theſe times *munimentum* was employed to deſignate a deed, charter, or diploma; and that in conſequence the learned world have a right to expect from the preſent title a collection of ancient charters, inſtead of a treatiſe on ancient buildings.

In attempting to convey to the reader ſome idea of this ponderous and eccentric volume, we ſhall commence with an extract from the preface.

'The beginning of our narration, and which is contained in this volume, relates ſolely to the earlieſt periods in Britain; before the invaſion of the Romans. The days of primæval ſimplicity, and rudeneſs;—the days of druidiſm,—and of patriarchal manners.

'And here; with regard to ſuch of the druidical ſtructures as were indeed unqueſtionably temples; I have carefully avoided, as much as poſſible, the repeating, or interfering with what has been written, ſo much at large, by doctor Stukeley:—leaving the curious ſtill to draw their own concluſions from his learned diſſertations;—though it cannot but be obſerved, that in the courſe of this work, concluſions, even on different grounds, have led me very much to agree with him. My object, it will be found, has been to add, if poſſible, by fair obſervations, new and additional light to the intereſting ſubject; by an inveſtigation of circumſtances, which had before eſcaped due notice.

'And in other points, with regard to Rowland, Borlaſe, and other able writers, to whom we are ſo much indebted, it will be found that I have, as much as poſſible, obſerved the ſame rule.

'The ſecond volume, which has the plates already engraved, and is printing with all expedition, will relate to the works of the Romans in this iſland, and the improvements introduced by them;—to ſuch works of the Britons as were imitations of Phœnician, and Syrian architecture, with which they were made acquainted by the traffickers for tin;—and to ſuch as were mere imitations of Roman architecture;—and alſo to ſuch as, in the more barbarous parts of the iſland, were only imitations of thoſe imitations.

'The third volume, which is alſo ready for the preſs, will contain the hiſtory of what truly relates to the Saxon times.

'And the fourth, the hiſtory of the ſtrenuous efforts of Norman genius;—and of the preparations which their ſturdy, and violent endeavours were permitted to make for better times.

'As viewing the hiſtory of our country in this light, has opened a ſcene of wonder and delight; and carrying with it a full conviction of truth, though mixed with much novelty of ideas, to the mind of the author; it may perhaps become no leſs ſtriking, and intereſting to the minds of others.

'The world becomes, by this means, in the trueſt ſenſe, the great and ſplendid theatre, on which are diſplayed the wonders of divine wiſdom, and deſignation, bringing light out of darkneſs, and a ſpiritual world of created beings to maturity.

'But there are ſcenes; amidſt which we muſt proceed with cautious ſteps.

'In this firſt part, therefore, it may be obſerved, that there are circumſtances of particular ſuperſtitious obſervances, that are ſaid to have prevailed amongſt the druids, which yet are not detailed at length in theſe pages.

'And the reaſon is,—becauſe they do not relate to the peculiar object of theſe obſervations;—becauſe alſo of the uncertainty with regard to ſome of them, (many of the concluſions reſting on ſurmiſe;)—and becauſe they have been more than ſufficiently mentioned by others;—whilſt, at the ſame time, it is ſurely to be wiſhed, that a veil ſhould for ever be drawn over the foul and fooliſh abominations of horrible idolatry; wherever ſacred truth does not demand the naming of them.

'Such circumſtances are;—

'The account of the ſtately old tree, in the deep wood, with its branches lopped off; and having the two largeſt fixed expanding horizontally at top, ſo as to cauſe the whole to reſemble the form of a T.

'The uſe of the ideal device of the orbicular winged ſerpent;—ſo much correſponding with the idea of the wings, the orb, and the ſerpent, found amongſt the Egyptian hieroglyphics.

'The uſe alſo of the ideal device of the mundane egg.

'And the pretence concerning the anguinum, or ſerpent ſtone, ſometimes called the adder ſtone.

'The various kinds of luſtrations:

'The attention to the white horſe, and to the white bull.

'The veneration for the vervain, and other conſecrated graſſes;—which was perhaps only a dark initiation to ſome ſcience of botany, and medicine.

'The reverence for the creſcent moon.

'The hallowed, and unhallowed ſolemn turnings from eaſt to weſt, or from weſt to eaſt.

'The ſuppoſed dances of three groups; the one wheeling round in a circle, from the right hand to the left; and the other from the

left hand to the right; with the slow walk of the third round a central altar, at the same time.

'The supposed fire dances.

'The fires, or bealtine, lighted on the cairns, on May-eve:—and the double fires on May-day; between which they caused their men and beasts to pass, which were destined to be sacrificed.

'And finally, the horrid magical rites of devoting their enemies; in deep groves, whose trees were sprinkled, and reeking, with blood and gore.

'Barely to name such detestable offences of dark ages, (from any enlarged narration of which, if such had been possible, no good could be derived;) is more than sufficient.

'And the more interesting and safe pursuit, is to investigate, by means of scattered remains of antient labour and architecture, and by means of scattered records, how, amidst the deepest errors, useful exertions have yet been made;—and how the mind of man has been insensibly guided through the whole wondrous chain of events, from gloomy darkness, unto hope, and light.—How obstinate prejudices have been overcome;—the bonds of habit broken;—and the fetters that held the human mind in such sad durance, by degrees loosened.

'This will be still more the purport of what is proposed to be printed in the succeeding volumes, than even of what is contained in this. But as, in this present volume, there has been occasion both to refer to, and to fling some light upon, the historical part of the Holy Scriptures; and also upon several passages in the most antient classic authors; two short indexes are added; besides a very full and minute table of contents.

'The one index, points out the passages in the Holy Scriptures, that are at all illustrated in these pages;—in regular order, according to the arrangement of the Sacred Books.

'And the other index, leads to such passages in antient writers, as are here placed in any striking point of view;—or have had any additional light cast upon them.—And also some particular circumstances, besides those mentioned in the table of contents, that are most deserving of notice.—And is made as short, and comprehensive, as possible.

'The same plan will be pursued in the succeeding volumes; if the author's life is spared to print them.—And as to the rest of their contents; it would be improper here to repeat what has been said in the advertisement prefixed to the Vestiges of Oxford Castle. And especially as no part of that little tract will now be inserted in the body of this publication; but the whole will be left to be bound as an Appendix to the work at large: that no one may be obliged to purchase the contents of that dissertation, in any shape, a second time, for the completion of this publication.' P. ii.

The remainder of the preface, which extends to twenty

pages, consists of meagre and uninteresting observations in a singularly colloquial, or rather talkative, style, better adapted to a private fire-side than to the eye of public criticism.

This first volume, or Book I. as the author calls it in the contents, is divided into seven chapters. Chapter I. gives a description of the old British fortresses, extending from p. 17 to p. 44. The remainder of the chapter relates to caves and hiding places. Hence, as will presently appear, only about 40 pages, out of 343, correspond with the title-page of the book.

After describing all the pits and hiding places mentioned in the Scriptures or profane travels, and a complete history of Jonathan and his armour-bearer, the author proceeds to chapter II. concerning all the stones of memorial which have been erected on the face of the earth. In chapter III. he proceeds to all the circles of memorial, of observances, and of observation; and in chapter IV. he gives us sacred circles, with altars of oblation. If the reader's head be not turned amidst these circles, he may advance to chapter V. concerning cromleches, and to chapter VI. concerning barrows and cairns. The VIIth and concluding chapter relates to rocking-stones, *tolmen*, and bason-stones. The traveller, with our author, will perceive that the soil is extremely stony, and we need not add that it is also extremely barren.

The introduction tells us, in a prodigality of words, the superiority of civilised over barbarous society, and how very fortunate it is that we have no human sacrifices. From chapter I. we learn that the British forts were chiefly situated on the tops of hills. From Cæsar's description we should rather have supposed them to have been placed in the midst of woods, and on low ground, for the sake of concealment, as the towns of the savages in America were generally found. But as Mr. King must know better than Cæsar, we shall dismiss this topic with observing that, instead of minute and original descriptions, which we expected, the author generally refers us to delineations by other writers, and even these references are sometimes erroneous; as, for instance, the *catter-thun*, which is taken from Pennant instead of general Roy; and so ignorant is our author of the common geography of his country, that he repeatedly styles the shire of *Mearns*, or Kincardin, the county of *Merris* or *Meris*. Even amidst the small portion of this volume which relates to ancient castles he falls into a variety of eccentric digressions, as his account of the canoes, the temple of Solomon, &c. &c. Nor can any thing be more deceitful than the author's table of contents, which indicates that descriptions of the places referred to occur in the pages enumerated; for, on turning to them, the reader will generally find not more than a line or two devoted to this pur-

pose, and often a mere reference to another author. Accustomed as we are to the servility of antiquaries, we have no hesitation in pronouncing that we have never met with any work more foreign to its title, or more injudiciously constructed, than the present. Mr. King is perpetually a close imitator of the pedagogue mentioned in Gil Blas, who wrote a dissertation to prove that the Athenian children commonly cried when they were whipped. After prying into a number of foreign caves, as if they were very singular things, he thus proceeds:

'All these accounts uniformly shew, what recourse mankind in general, in an uncivilized state, in different countries, and especially in those which were first of all inhabited, had to these kind of hiding places, for security; as well as to strongholds, on rocks, and hills. It may therefore very reasonably be conceived, that the primæval inhabitants of this island, would not be without such rude resources: and accordingly we find remains that answer most precisely to such sort of hiding places.

'For, as to those for corn and grain, there is one that can hardly be mistaken; although such strange conclusions have been drawn by some writers with regard to it; and even by one who judged so excellently well in other matters.

'It is at Royston, in Hertfordshire; most manifestly quite unconnected with the foundation of the present town; and prior to the existence of any place of that denomination: for it was discovered, at last, only by means of an endeavour to put down a post in the market-place, in 1742.

'A very imperfect sketch of it, taken from Dr. Stukeley's drawing, may be seen in Mr. Gough's Additions to Camden's Britannia, but it is in reality of a much more conical form than there represented. The descent to it is by a narrow pipe or well, just like those in Syria. And as to the figures, and odd holes cut in the sides, in the chalk, they are clearly the rude carvings of idle persons, who have been down there at different times; and afford no rational ground for any conjectures, like those of Dr. Stukeley, concerning a lady Roisia, or its having been her oratory. Its situation, in a country full of British barrows; and in a spot of such note in early ages, that two Roman roads were made to meet there; as well as the whole appearance of the place, speak it to have been a most antient repository for grain; and sometimes even a secret hiding place for persons, against irruptions of enemies, of that violent and sudden kind so frequent in early ages.

'Of the same sort of structure also; and (as seems most plainly to appear from their whole form) designed for the same use, are those numerous pits near Crayford, in Kent; described by Mr. Hasted. There are now to be seen, he says, as well on the heaths near Crayford, as in the fields and woods hereabout, many artificial caves in the earth; some of which are ten, some fifteen, and others twenty

fathoms deep. At the mouth and thence downward, they are narrow, like the tunnel or paſſage of a well, but at the bottom they are large and of great compaſs, inſomuch that ſome of them have ſeveral rooms, one within another, ſtrongly vaulted, and ſupported with pillars of chalk. Mr. Haſted apprehended them to have been made by the Saxons, in imitation of the cuſtom of their German anceſtors, as deſcribed by Tacitus; but if we conſider how much ſuperior the other Saxon modes of fortification appear, it ſeems much more reaſonable to conclude that they were firſt formed by the Britons, in conformity to the moſt antient uſages of mankind.

'There are ſeveral more of theſe kind of hiding pits, and of the like peculiar ſtructure, near Faverſham, in the ſame county.

'And of this kind ſeem to have been the pits mentioned by Camden, near Tilbury in Eſſex.

'That they were all really the works of the Britons, may be concluded; becauſe Diodorus Siculus expreſsly tells us, that the Britons did lay up their corn in ſubterranean repoſitories: from whence the antient people uſed to take a certain portion every day; and having dried and bruiſed the grains, made a kind of food thereof for immediate uſe.

'Nor is it unworthy our notice, that this ſort of diet, and alſo the quick mode of preparing it, greatly reſembles what we read of, as being ſtill in uſe, in ſome of the moſt uncivilized of the weſtern iſlands of Scotland; and in ſome parts of the Highlands; amongſt the deſcendants of the old Britiſh Caledonians. For there ſometimes, to this very day, a woman taking an handful of ears of corn, and holding them by the ſtalks in her left hand, ſets fire to the ears; and then with a ſtick in her right hand, beats off the parched grain, very dexterouſly, at the very inſtant when the huſk is quite burnt; by which means a quantity of corn is winnowed, ground, and baked, within an hour.' P. 47.

The author then gives us ſome excellent caves, ready cut and dried, from the hiſtory of Joſephus, and paſſes with the rapidity of an eagle from Scotland to Paleſtine, and from Paleſtine to Wales. All the paſſages of Scripture which mention any caves or holes are carefully reprinted, leſt the reader may not perhaps poſſeſs a Bible. Nay, to fill up the book, even whole pages are borrowed from Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtory, and from Sully's Memoirs, concerning the ſurpriſal of ſome modern caſtles!

It would be endleſs to endeavour to rectify Mr. King's confuſed ideas reſpecting many ancient places. Courts of juſtice, and other civil monuments, are by our author converted into caſtles or temples, and inſtead of diſcuſſing the real intention of the edifice he gravely takes it for granted, whereas his very firſt office ought to have been to have laid ſolid foundations, and to have convinced his readers that he could not miſ-

take a church for a windmill. All the ancient Britons he likewise considers as *aboriginal*, as he calls them, totally forgetting the Belgic colonisation mentioned by Cæsar, and other ancient authors. This ignorance of the real history of his country necessarily leads to the grossest blunders; for it is impossible to give a just and satisfactory illustration of ancient monuments, except by profound inquiries into the annals of the country where they are found.

The following extract may perhaps amuse our readers more than the tedious enumeration of old forts and caves, interlarded with passages from the Scriptures and Josephus.

'After having thus endeavoured to form a clear idea of the nature of the fortresses, and of the mode of habitation of the antient Britons; we cannot but wish to obtain, as far as is possible, some little conception of the appearance of their persons, and of their manners.

'Cæsar says, the inhabitants of Kent were the most civilized of any; and the most nearly resembled the natives of Gaul. For the inhabitants of the interior parts of the island, according to his account, were so utterly unacquainted with the conveniences of life, that they did not even sow any corn at all, but lived entirely upon milk, and flesh.

'All the Britons painted themselves more or less (*vitro*), that is, according to the apprehensions of the best commentators, with woad, of a bluish colour, in order to render themselves of a more formidable appearance in battle. And Herodian affirms, that some of them, on the sea coast, punctured their bodies (στιζονται) with figures resembling various kinds of animals; in consequence of which they also went without garments, that they might not cover or conceal those indented representations; which we may observe must have been very nearly of the same kind, as to the manner in which they were impressed, with the marks made by tattowing in the South Sea Islands.

'They had long lank hair; but were shorn in every part of the body, except the head, and upper lip. And excepting the persons just mentioned, they were, in general, clad with skins.

'To this, which is the substance of the account given by Cæsar, Strabo adds, that many of the inhabitants were so rude, and unskilful, as neither to be able to make any cheeses, although they had plenty of milk; nor to cultivate pot herbs; or to use any kind of tillage of the ground whatever.

'Their wretched black substitute for salt also, was obtained merely by pouring sea water on the embers of burning wood. And with this they, or at least the neighbouring Irish, are said, in some instances, to have devoured human flesh, and to have drank the blood of animals, and even of their enemies. And it must be confessed, that the barbarity and horrid customs of some barbarous nations,

lately discovered, render these accounts too probable, however questionable the authority of the authors who relate them may be.

'But though there were such instances of barbarity in some parts, yet this wretched savage state was not universal: and with regard to their druids, we may infer, from Strabo's account of those in Gaul, whom they so nearly resembled, that this order of men were even richly clad; and that some of them even wore golden chains, or collars, about their necks and arms; and had their garments dyed with various colours, and adorned with gold.

'Chains also, both of iron, and gold, appear to have been worn by some of the chieftains, and noble personages.

'And from his account of the common people in Gaul, and of the intercourse the Britons had with them, and of the close similarity of their customs, we may conclude that some of the common order of Britons, instead of the rude skins of beasts, wore very thick coarse wrappers, made of wool: which must plainly have been a sort of blankets, or rugs, fastened about the neck with a little sharp pointed piece of stick. They wore also a coarse slit short vest, reaching down barely to the thighs, with sleeves. Whilst, for weapons, and armour, they had a long two-handed sword, hanging by a chain, on the right hand side; a great long wooden shield, as tall as a man; long spears; and a sort of missile wooden instrument like a javelin, longer than an arrow, which they darted merely by the hand; (both of which latter, seem plainly to denote two different sorts of those kinds of weapons, called Celtes, fixed at the end of staves and sticks) and some of them used slings for stones. There were amongst them also those who had breastplates made of plates of iron, with hooks, or with wreathed chains; and such as had helmets also of different fashions: but some went into the field of battle nearly quite naked, who probably were those mentioned by Herodian, whose bodies were punctured with figures resembling various animals: and who had sometimes wreathed chains of iron about their necks and loins.

'They generally lay and reposed themselves on the bare ground; yet most of them ate their food sitting on seats.

'And they had a particular species of dogs, most excellent for hunting; and so fierce, that the Gauls made use of them in war.

'From these accounts compared together, and duly weighed, we may venture to represent to our imaginations some tolerably adequate idea of the appearance which the antient Britons must have made.' P. 96.

When the author refers, p. 101, to German statues, supposed to represent druids, he should have looked into the ancient authors, who would have told him in express words that the Germans had no druids. There is no reason to believe that any were known among the Belgæ in Britain, a German colony; and consequently this vast and costly volume on castles may be pronounced, in a great measure, a castle in the air.

When Mr. King, p. 112, gravely aſſerts that a modern Welch pig-ſtye, built of ſtone, affords the real repreſentation of the ancient Britiſh huts, which were of wood, and that the Welch ſledge, with low or no wheels, reſembles the ancient Britiſh car uſed in battle, we can only pity ſuch a confuſion of ideas; for the wheels of the car muſt have been of conſiderable height, otherwiſe the chiefs could not have fought with any advantage, or their perſonal commands been obſerved by numerous battalions.

The author obſerves, p. 113, that the term druidic temples is abſurd, as the druids had no temples: but his diſtinction between temples and ſacred circles is truly nugatory; and it is ſurpriſing that the truth did not ſtrike him that Stonehenge, and other ſuch circles, have not the moſt diſtant connection with the druids, being found in Germany, Scandinavia, and other countries, where druids were totally unknown, and where the antiquaries have well deſcribed them as ancient courts of juſtice, proportioned in ſize to various dignities, from the regal down to the baronial, or the ſmalleſt ſubdiviſion of public judicature. This fact he might have found ſtaring him in the face in many pages of the Icelandic hiſtorians; ſuch as Snorro, the Landnama, or origins of Iceland, and the commentators. It is true that a ſacrifice, ſometimes human, was offered up before the buſineſs commenced; but theſe ſacrifices do not conſtitute a temple any more than our prayers in parliament render the houſe of lords a church.

The author's quotations from Scripture and from profane writers, to evidence that ſtones were anciently erected as memorials, might well have been ſpared, the fact being univerſally known and admitted. It reminds us of a faſhion in the time of James I. by which no author was permitted to obſerve that ſnow was white, without adducing ten or twelve authorities in ſupport of his aſſeveration. The preparation of lead, mentioned p. 124, which will quickly wear away the hardeſt granite, ought to have been ſpecified; nor is the authority of Dr. Moyes ſufficient for ſuch a new and ſingular diſcovery.

In the third chapter, after a very ample diſplay of learning, biblical and profane, we expected to have found a more particular account of Britiſh monuments, but were again diſappointed. The author, who is an entire ſtranger to the ancient population and hiſtory of Great Britain, wildly ſuppoſes that the Picts of the North, who came from Scandinavia, where there were no druids, nevertheleſs followed the druidic ſyſtem, and that what are called Picts' houſes were the reſidence of druids!

The only intereſting part of the fourth chapter is the account of Stonehenge, accompanied with large engravings, which ſeem pretty faithful. On a recent viſit to this remarkable edi-

fice, the shortness of the diameter was matter of surprise to us, being only forty-seven steps; nor did the whole fabric answer our expectation. The imaginary plans drawn by various antiquaries to support their hypotheses we shall not stop to examine, but shall only briefly mention that these ruins consist of three concentric circles, the innermost being of small stones, about five feet high each. The second circle of large stones, about eighteen feet in height, appears to have been formed into a kind of gateway, by a third stone being laid over two uprights, in such a mode that there was no room for another stone to rest over the vacancy, as the overlaying stone extends to the extremities of the two uprights. In the outermost circle, on the contrary, the stones at the top are uniformly continued, so as to present a narrow pavement around the whole court. At a distance equal to that of the diameter of the circle stand three high stones, one towards the west, and another towards the east. On the south there never appears to have been any; but on the north is not only a high and massy stone, but one of great breadth and length, which never can have stood upright, as it is, on the contrary, surrounded by a parapet in every direction. This, we agree with Mr. King, was the altar. From what part the stones were brought is by no means obvious; but they are generally pale yellowish sandstones, not fermenting with acids, and therefore consisting either wholly of siliceous particles, or mixed with an argillaceous cement.

From this plain account of this celebrated structure, it will strike every northern antiquary, accustomed to such objects, that it was a high national court, in which rude parliaments were held, and justice administered. Within the innermost circle are three stones, which seem intended for seats, and on which probably were placed the king or chief of the Belgæ or German settlers, who inhabited Wiltshire and other countries to the south, and on each side of him the high priest, and the chief judge, or most skilful man in the traditional laws. When they had taken their seats, a rope was drawn around the innermost circle of small stones, as usual in Scandinavia, to prevent any improper intrusions; and this ceremony being accomplished, the court was said to be fenced, a phrase yet retained in the Scotish law. The subject proposed by the king or chief judge being afterwards debated by the chiefs, who stood around within the exterior circle, the next object was to submit the proposition to the general council of the nation, consisting of all the males capable of bearing arms. To be seen and heard by so numerous an assembly, considerable elevation and change of situation became necessary, and such, it may be conceived, was the intention of the outermost circle, presenting an uniform pavement at the top, around which a

chief or chiefs (having aſcended by ſmall ladders) might walk and diſcourſe at eaſe to the ſurrounding people. And it cannot fail to impreſs the ſpectator, that at a very conſiderable diſtance from the circle there is in every direction a kind of ſhelving bank, natural or artificial, capable of containing an immenſe multitude, who might all behold what paſſed within the circle itſelf, which is, as it were, in the central bottom of this gentle cavity.

Inſtead of a plain rational account of theſe ruins, our pious author has crowded numerous pages with ample quotations from the Scriptures concerning the kingdom of the Meſſiah, though no ſound mind can perceive any connection between ſuch a ſubject and Stonehenge; and the reader, who is judicious as well as religious, will be apt to eſteem ſuch an incongruous mixture a mere profanation. In p. 189, Mr. King mentions Mr. Keate's two views of Stonehenge, but ought to have added that they are completely out of drawing, to uſe the language of artiſts; for by preſenting the backs of ſome ſtones, of which he ought to have given the front, as we obſerved on the ſpot, and other groſs errors in perſpective, the views are literally good for nothing. As to Mr. King's hiſtory of this and other circular remains, it is like the reſt of his work, injudicious, viſionary, and obſcure.

The fifth chapter, on cromleches, or monuments of two ſtones, with one above and acroſs, preſents nothing worth notice; nor do the author's eccentric opinions, here again crowded into the ſubject, deſerve the attention of any man of ſound learning. Many of theſe pretended monuments of art occur in Alpine countries, where they ariſe naturally from ſome pieces of the rock being harder than others, and remaining in groteſque ſituations, while the ſofter parts are waſhed away. Nor can any thing be more ludicrous than to ſee our author, amidſt his ſolicitous labour in illuſtrating pagan monuments, expreſſing ſuch religious execrations of pagan rites. Having mentioned that the celebrated Cook was preſented to idols in the South Sea, he calls out Horror! horror! horror! and he pronounces any theatrical repreſentation of pagan rites abominable. Can even the weakeſt author in this enlightened age forget that it is merely the intention which conſtitutes guilt, or ſuppoſe that captain Cook, or any ſpectator of a drama, founded on foreign ſuperſtitions, has the moſt remote idea of profeſſing ſuch ſuperſtition himſelf? Totally different was the caſe when Chriſtianity was ſtruggling with paganiſm;—but the author's perpetual confuſion extends even to the moſt plain and palpable ſubjects.

As much has recently been written concerning the barrows on the plain of Troy, we ſhall extract a part of Mr. King's diffuſe chapter on barrows.

'The barrow said to be that of Patroclus and Achilles, with some others near adjoining, are thus described by Dr. Chandler; who surveyed them in their present state.

"Early in the morning we descended the slope, on which Sigéum stood. After walking eight minutes we came between two barrows, standing each in a vineyard, or inclosure. One was that of Achilles and Patroclus; the other, which was on our right hand, that of Antilochus, son of Nestor. This had a fragment or two of white marble on the top, which I ascended: as had also another, not far off, which, if I mistake not, was that of Peneleus, one of the leaders of the Bœotians, who was slain by Eurypylus. We had likewise in view the barrow of Ajax Telamon; and at a distance from it, on the side next Lectos, that of Æsytes, mentioned in Homer."

'The fragments of marble found here, on the tops of the barrows of Antilochus, and Peneleus, deserve our attention: because they plainly shew, that here were placed rude marble pillars, similar to that which was erected on the barrow of Ilus, which has been already so particularly taken notice of.

'And because we have also reason to think there was formerly such an one on the barrow of Achilles: inasmuch as Plutarch tells us, that Alexander poured oil on the stone pillar of the grave of Achilles; when he had passed the Hellespont, on his way into Persia.

'The barrow of Hecuba, Chandler says, is still very conspicuous, near one of the castles of the Hellespont.

'And the same curious and intelligent traveller observed, before the antient Sardes, on the opposite side of the plain, many barrows, on an eminence, some of which are seen afar off.

'And at the distance of five miles from thence, by the antient Gygæa, where was the burying-place of the Lydian kings, he saw many more barrows, of various sizes; four or five of which were distinguished by their superior magnitude. All of them covered with green turf, and retaining, as far as he could examine them, their conical form, without any sinking in at top.

'They are all placed on an eminence.—And on the same rising ground, near the middle, and towards Sardes, is most remarkably conspicuous, the vast monument, or barrow, of Halyattes, the father of Crœsus. Where the mold, which has been washed down by time, now conceals (as Chandler very fairly supposes), the basement of stone, mentioned by Herodotus.

'That great historian's very remarkable description of the mode of constructing it well deserves our notice.—And especially as one part of his account will admit of two different kinds of explanation: and as that which has never yet been adopted, may probably be the true one.

'Herodotus says, "Lydia exhibits one work, by far the greatest of any, except the works of the Egyptians and Babylonians. For

there is there, the ſepulchre of Halyattes, the father of Crœſus. The foundation of which (or the bottom part). ἡ κρηπις, is of great ſtones; but the reſt of the ſepulchre χωμα γης, a tumulus of earth."

' Here we have, ſurely, in the firſt place, an exact deſcription of what perfectly reſembles a large Britiſh, or Iriſh barrow.

' We have alſo ſome intimation, in the next place, of the probable exiſtence of a paſſage, and *kiſtvaen*, or ſmall room, under the foundation of great ſtones; deſigned for the reception of the bones and aſhes; and formed of large rude ſtones, as in ſome of our barrows; and both covered, and ſurrounded with other large ſtones. Over which there was then, a vaſt tumulus, or mount of earth, heaped up very high.

' And the hiſtorian, after this, goes on, and ſays, as has hitherto been apprehended), " that the artificers, the labourers, and the girls who were proſtituted for hire, conſtructed it. And even to my days, are remaining five termini, on the top of the ſepulchre; having letters inſcribed, recording what each had performed. And on a meaſurement it appeared, that the work of the girls was the moſt conſiderable.—The circuit, or circumference, of this ſepulchre is ſix ſtadia, and two plethra (that is, a little more than three quarters of a mile; and the breadth is thirteen plethra."

' But in tranſlating the whole in this manner, there ſeems to be no ſmall difficulty as to the word οὖροι; which is tranſlated *termini*, or *rude boundary ſtones*; and alſo as to the words γραμματα ενεκεκολαπτο; which are tranſlated *letters were inſcribed*. For, indeed, it is only by a particular mode of accenting, that οὖρος can ever be put for ὅρος *terminus*, or *fines*—*a boundary*, or *limit*.—And much more properly οὐρὸς may mean *alveus*, or *foſſa*, a *ditch*, or *artificial trench*; whilſt, at the ſame time, the word ενεκεκολαπτο, in reality rather implies, that letters, or marks, were impreſſed, *by being ſtampt*, or *beaten in*, than by being *inſcribed*, or *cut*. The expreſſion, therefore, actually uſed by Herodotus, does not, in reality, at all agree with the idea of an inſcription being cut on boundary ſtones; or on any ſtone monuments: but exactly agrees with that of rude characters, or marks, being ſtampt, or beaten into the ſide of a dry ditch (perhaps ſomewhat in the manner that thoſe old memorials, the figures of the white horſe, and of the white-leaf croſs, are formed on the ſides of certain chalk hills, in our own country.

' Herodotus then expreſsly ſays, it appeared, by meaſuring, that the work of the girls was the greateſt. And we may obſerve it certainly would be ſo, in every reſpect, if their ditch was, as it ſhould ſeem to have been, the outermoſt of five concentric ones, formed on the ſummit of this vaſt barrow.

' I ſhould therefore be greatly inclined to tranſlate the words of Herodotus as follows; taking them as they might appear before the invention of accents.

" Του η κρεπις μεν εστι λιθων μεγαλων, το δε αλλο σημα, χωμα γης. εξειργασαντο δε μιν οι αγοραιοι ανθρωποι, και οι χειρωνακτες, και αι ενεργαζομεναι παιδισκαι. ουροι δε πεντε εοντες, ετι και ες εμε ησαν επι του σηματος ανω· και σφι γραμματα ενεκεκολαπτο, τα εκαστοι εξεργασαντο· και εφαινετο μετρεομενον το των παιδισκεων εργον εον μεγιστον.

" The bottom part of it was a mafs of great ftones; but the reft of the fepulchre a tumulus of earth.—The men in civil life (or who exercifed public offices), and the craftfmen (or mechanics), and the girls who were proftitutes, reared this fepulchre, each clafs by themfelves.—And there were yet exifting, even to my days, five ditches (or artificial trenches), upon the fepulchre on the upper part; on which were ftampt (or impreffed) letters (or characters), fhewing what each fet had wrought. And, on meafuring, it appeared that the work of the girls was the greateft."

' According to this tranflation, we find, this fepulchre was (as Chandler indeed found it to be) a great barrow, or artificial hill.

' And, according to this tranflation of the whole, we are further informed, that it was raifed over certain great ftones, which immediately covered the bones and afhes; whilft, at the top, were five great works, like ditches, or artificial trenches; fomewhat in the manner of thofe of an antient hill fortrefs, furrounding the area on the fummit. On the flopes of which ditches were rudely ftampt, in large characters, certain marks, or letters, expreffing how much of the work each of the feveral claffes of people had performed.

' And this account furely agrees much better with the rudenefs of thofe early ages, than the idea of any regular pillars, or carved ftones, with infcriptions engraved upon them. Which pillars, if fuch had really been what he intended to defcribe, the hiftorian would rather have mentioned, by the proper word στηλαι. By which the rude pillars, on the barrows of Ilus, and of Patroclus, and Achilles, are actually mentioned.

' To proceed then with the confideration of fuch works of the primæval ages, in parts of the earth firft inhabited, as were fimilar to our Britifh barrows.

' Chandler faw in Greece, another barrow, on the fhore near Ægina; which feems to have been the fame with that feen by Paufanias in Adrian's time, when it had ftill remaining, upon its fummit, a rough ftone.

' There is alfo ftill remaining a moft remarkable barrow, on the plain of Marathon; which was in like manner taken notice of by Paufanias; and feems to have been that under which the Athenians were buried, after the celebrated battle with the Perfians. It is, though fo many centuries have elapfed fince the time of Paufanias, a mount that ftill towers above the level of the plain. It is of light fine earth, and has a bufh or two growing on it. And from the fummit is a moft pleafant view of the country.

' There are alfo fome other barrows in the adjacent region, near

a part called Brauron, which may probably be ſome of thoſe others mentioned by Pauſanias, as belonging to other perſons ſlain in this famous battle.

'And it ought not to be forgotten, that when Laius had been ſlain at Phocis, in a ſudden tumult, by his ſon Œdipus, ſtones were heaped over him, and thoſe ſlain with him; which muſt have formed a kind of cairn, or ſtone barrow, and ſeems to have exiſted in the days of Pauſanias.

'Neither ſhould it be forgotten, that when Tydeus, the father of Diomed, was ſlain, in the Theban war, he was buried by heaping, or pouring out, earth upon him; that is, by means of forming a barrow, or tumulus over him.

'Τυδεος, ον Θηβησι χυτη κατα γαια καλυψε.

'So, the ſepulchre of Lycus, near Sicyone, was a barrow of earth.

'And even ſo late as in the time of Alexander, his friend Hepheſtion (like Patroclus the friend of Achilles), was buried under a barrow.—Juſtin ſays, that Alexander raiſed a tumulus over him, at the expence of twelve thouſand talents. And from the manner in which Quintus Curtius ſpeaks of it, we may clearly perceive that ſuch a kind of interment was then become, even in thoſe days, which we now deem ſo early, ſomewhat unuſual.

'So alſo, if Xenophon's Hiſtory of Cyrus is to be relied on as containing real facts; when Abradates and Panthea were honoured by that conqueror with diſtinguiſhed marks of reſpect; on the interment of that unhappy pair (Panthea having killed herſelf, that ſhe might be interred in the ſame grave with her huſband), a great tumulus of earth was raiſed over them; Cyrus having before promiſed Panthea, that ſuch a monument ſhould be reared by many hands, and that ſuch victims ſhould be ſacrificed, as were becoming the memory of a brave man.' P. 270.

In this chapter, as uſual, the profeſſed object of the book is not once mentioned; and even the object of the chapter, which ought, at leaſt, to have particularly illuſtrated the barrows in Great Britain, is exchanged for a deſultory enumeration of thoſe found all over the world. The rocking-ſtones of the laſt chapter are frequently the mere produce of nature, proceeding, as we before mentioned, from one part of a rock being harder than another. In ſhort, the reader will riſe from this ponderous folio with the firm opinion that the author is very religious, but very weak, and certainly very ignorant and injudicious as an antiquary; for his ſubjects, inſtead of receiving illuſtration from his labours, are involved, if poſſible, in additional darkneſs. We do not wiſh to remind him of the archbiſhop of Granada, but no writer can be more unlike himſelf; and when we conſider that this work is produced by the

author of the obſervations on ancient caſtles, publiſhed, as we have already obſerved, in the Archæologia, we are prompted to exclaim, in his own favourite language of Scripture, 'What is man!'

كتاب مسالك وممالك تصنيف ابن حوقل

The Oriental Geography of Ebn Haukal, an Arabian Traveller of the Tenth Century. Tranſlated from a Manuſcript in his own Poſſeſſion, collated with one preſerved in the Library of Eton College, by Sir William Ouſeley, Knt. LL. D. 4to. 1*l.* 7*s.* *Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

AMONG the curious and learned productions for which the literary world is indebted to ſir William Ouſeley, this may be claſſed as the moſt important. The antiquity of Ebn Haukal, and the frequent references made to his work by Edriſi, Abulfeda, and others who have thence derived a great part of their materials, have juſtly excited a deſire to become acquainted with the original. This father of Oriental geography appears to have been a great traveller, and to have actually viſited moſt of the countries which he deſcribes. The dryneſs of his manner will not recommend him to the general reader; but as a book of reference he may be frequently and advantageouſly conſulted.

In his preface, the ingenious tranſlator firſt demonſtrates, from paſſages in the work itſelf, that the author flouriſhed rather before the middle of the tenth century, and proceeds to mention the title of this work in the original Arabic preſerved in the library at Leyden, and in the Perſian tranſlation which he has uſed. It is to be regretted that in theſe references the author has been negligent in affixing the diacritical points, ſo that the proper enunciation of the names is often left obſcure. Sir William afterwards ſhows, from quotations by Abulfeda, that this is the identic work of Ebn Haukal, and laments the great inaccuracy of the Oriental copyiſts, who disfigure their tranſcripts with numerous errors and omiſſions.

'Of the difficulties ariſing from an irregular combination of letters, the confuſion of one word with another, and the total omiſſion, in ſome lines, of the diacritical points, I ſhould not complain, becauſe habit and perſevering attention have enabled me to ſurmount them in paſſages of general deſcription, or ſentences of common conſtruction; but in the names of perſons or of places never before ſeen or heard of, and which the context could not aſſiſt in deciphering, when the diacritical points were omitted, conjecture alone could ſupply them, or collation with a more perfect manuſcript. The former I have ſeldom indulged, and the latter has enabled me, in

ſeveral inſtances, to aſcertain the true reading; and even the few names in which I have ſupplied the diacritical points from conjecture, are pointed out to the reader by a note, or otherwiſe.

'Notwithſtanding what I have juſt ſaid, and although the moſt learned writers on Hebrew, Arabick, and Perſian literature, have made obſervations on the ſame ſubject, it may perhaps be neceſſary to demonſtrate, by a particular example, the extraordinary influence of thoſe diacritical points, which, as they are eſſential parts of letters, muſt not be confounded with the vowel points or accents.

'One example will ſuffice—Let us ſuppoſe the three letters forming the name تبت Tibbet to be diveſted of their diacritical points, and thus written ٮٮٮ—The firſt character may be rendered, by the application of one point above, an N, thus, ﻧ— of two points a T, ﺗ—of three points a TH or S, ﺛ; if one point is placed under, it becomes a B ﺑ—if two points, a Y ﻳ—and if three points, a P ﭘ. In like manner the ſecond character may be affected, and the third character may be, according to the addition of points, rendered a B, P, T, and TH, or S.

'Thus, amidſt the multiplicity of names which may be formed of thoſe three characters, it would be almoſt impoſſible, without the aid of context, or previous conſideration, to aſcertain the true reading: and, to uſe the words of Golius, that moſt learned Orientaliſt, on a ſimilar occaſion, one muſt act the part of a diviner before he can perform that of an interpreter.' P. xix.

We rather ſuſpect that ſir William Ouſeley allows too much ſpace for the medium of a day's journey, when he computes it at thirty miles. In the hot climates of the Eaſt, and the ſlow progreſs of camels and caravans, not more than twenty miles a day may be allowed; and in real fact the day's journey is ſometimes only twelve. The paraſang ſir William Ouſeley eſtimates at about four Engliſh miles. When the learned editor obſerves that the Macedonian conqueſts muſt have introduced the numerous coincidences to be found between the Perſian and Greek languages, he certainly aſcribes too much to ſuch a brief, partial, and tranſitory event, and ſhould rather have admitted, with the moſt eminent literati, that there was an original identity of ſpeech, afterwards nearly obliterated, as that between the Engliſh and the German,—a common fountain and intermixture of language. A vague paſſage of that declaimer Seneca would afford but a poor proof of the prevalence of the Macedonian tongue. Seneca was a mere rhetorician, and, conſiſtently with his profeſſion, would have no objection to ſacrifice the truth to a falſe ornament of ſpeech. The editor further mentions, that finding his notes on ſeveral paſſages exceed the bounds he had intended, he has reſerved them

for another work on the geography of the Aſiatics, derived from numerous Oriental writers, and illuſtrated with maps; a work which will no doubt meet with the moſt favourable reception. He concludes his preface with expreſſing his hopes that this publication may prove acceptable to the Orientaliſt, the antiquary, and the geographer:—

'For the reſult of my former labours has taught me to expect no other recompenſe than praiſe, and the hopes of ſubſtantial profit have been extinguiſhed by ſucceſſive diſappointments.'

It ſeems indeed impoſſible that any pecuniary recompenſe can ariſe from publications of this nature; and it is much to be regretted that the moſt opulent commercial company in the world, deriving ſo many advantages from its Oriental intercourſe, ſhould not allot ſome ſmall pittance out of its vaſt income to promote this peculiar department of ſcience. Even the Dutch Eaſt-India Company, a mere ſkeleton in compariſon with the Engliſh, evinces more taſte and a more liberal ſpirit; and would ſcarcely have failed to have encouraged a Townſon in exploring the mineral wealth of their poſſeſſions, or an Ouſeley in diffuſing the knowledge of the language and literature they contain. When, in the courſe of revolving ages, our opulent and chartered company ſhall have vaniſhed away, its memoirs will hardly be reſcued from oblivion by the ſcientific liberality it has manifeſted, or tranſmitted to poſterity by the grateful monuments of ſcholars whom it has foſtered.

A general idea of this work may be conveyed in a few words. Ebn Haukal firſt explains his plan; gives a curſory deſcription of the countries and ſeas that lie within its range; and then enters into a brief account of Arabia, Abyſſinia, the weſt of Africa, Egypt, and Syria. The chief part of his publication is dedicated to Perſia and the ſurrounding ſtates.

Such a ſtranger is Ebn Haukal (p. 8) to the Franks, that he ſuppoſes them to be all ſubject to one king. Whether this error proceed from his applying the term Franks to the ſubjects of the Byſantine empire alone, or from his conſidering every European nation as ſubject to the emperor of Germany, may be matter of inquiry. In p. 21 the author mentions Fez, and ſays that it was poſſeſſed by Iahia, which can ſcarcely be reconciled with the accounts publiſhed by M. Cardon in the Oriental manuſcripts. A part of the deſcription of Egypt we ſhall tranſcribe.

'There are great quantities of dates, and many corn fields, along the banks of the Nile, from that to near اسوان Aſouan, and to the borders of اسكندرية Eſkanderiah. When the weather becomes very warm, the water increaſes; and when it ſinks, they ſow their grain; after that, there is no neceſſity for water. In the land

of Egypt there falls not either rain or ſnow; nor is there in the whole country any running ſtream beſide the river Nile.

' فيوم Fioum is not a very conſiderable town. It is ſaid that the prophet Joſeph, on whom be the bleſſing of God! brought the water to that place, and called it لاهوت Lahout: And there is not any perſon who knows the fountains or ſource of the river Nile; on this account, becauſe it iſſues from a cavern in the territories of زنگبار Zingbar, from a certain ſpot, which a man may very nearly approach, yet never can arrive at: after this, it runs through the inhabited and deſert parts of the land of the Nubians to مصر Miſr (Egypt); and there where it firſt becomes a river, it is equal to the دجله و فرات Deljeh and Frat (Tigris and Euphrates.) And the water of the river Nile is the moſt pure and delicious of all the waters on the face of the earth.

' The Nile produces نهنگ crocodiles, and the fiſh ماهي سقنقور ſekenkour: and there is alſo a ſpecies of fiſh, called راعده raadah, which if any perſon take in his hand while it is alive, that perſon will be affected by a trembling of his body; when dead, this fiſh reſembles other fiſhes. The crocodile's head is very long, ſo long as to be one half of his whole form; and he has ſuch teeth, that, if a lion were to come within their hold, he would be deſtroyed. It ſometimes happens that the crocodile comes out of the water on the dry ground; but he has not then the ſame powers as when in the water. His ſkin is ſo hard that it reſiſts the blows of all weapons when ſtricken on the back: they therefore wound him where the fore legs join the body (literally, under the arm pits), and between the thighs. The سقنقور ſekenkour is a ſpecies of that fiſh (the crocodile), but the crocodile has hands and feet; and they uſe the ſekenkour in medicinal and culinary preparations. This creature is not found any where but in the river Nile.

' From اسوان Aſouan, along the banks of the Nile, as far as the ſea, the country is all inhabited and cultivated. On the ſouthern ſide of the Nile there is a place called سعيد Saied, where are mines of زبرجد zeberjed, and emeralds (زمرد zemrud) far in the deſert; and beſide theſe there are not any mines of thoſe precious ſtones. On the northern ſide of the river Nile, near Foſtat, there is a certain hill, called معظم Moazem, in the vicinity of which is found the ſtone خماهن khemahen; and this hill extends to the land of the يونان Iounans (Greeks): And near that

hill, in the district of Fostat; is a burying-place, where the tomb of Shafæi is situated;—the Lord be merciful to him!

'اسكندريه Eskanderia, Alexandria, is a considerable town, built on the sea-side: the houses, and other edifices, are of marble. And out in the sea there is a مناره minareh, or watch-tower, of hard stone, and very lofty; it contains about three hundred houses: No one without a guide can arrive there.' P. 31.

In describing Basrah, p. 63, Ebn Haukal's 120,000 streams ought surely to be reduced to 120. In the opinion of Ebn Haukal, Persia was the first country in the world; and he accordingly illustrates it with a more minute and detailed description. He thus commences his account of its cities:

'اصطخر Istakhar is a city neither small nor great, more ancient than any city whatsoever of Pars. The extent of it is about one mile; and the sovereigns of Pars had their dwellings there, and Ardeshir resided in that place; and there is a tradition that Solomon the prophet (the blessing of God be on him!) used to set out from تبرثه Tabertha in the morning, and at night arrive at Istakhar. There is in Istakhar a mosque, which they call the mosque of Solomon, the son of David: and some people affirm that جم Jem, who reigned before ضحاك Zohak, was Solomon; but that opinion is erroneous. In ancient times Istakhar was well inhabited; and the bridge called Pool-i-Khorasan پول خراسان or the Khorasan bridge, is without the city.

'بشادور Beshadour was built by king Shapour. It has strong ramparts, and a ditch with water, in which weeds and thorns grow as high as the waist of a man, so thickly entangled, that one cannot, without considerable difficulty, be extricated from them. This place has four gates; and in the midst of it is a singular hill, or eminence, like a tower or dome. The buildings are of clay.

'جور Jawr was built by Ardeshir. It is said that this place was formerly a small lake, and that Ardeshir, having there obtained a victory over his enemy, desired to build a city on the spot, and ordered the water to be drained away. The walls are of clay. There are four gates: One is called the باب مهر Bab Mihr; it leads to the east: another is the باب بهرام Bab Behram, leading to the west. On the right hand is situated the دروازه هرمز Derwazeh Hormuz, or gate of Hormuz; and on the left the gate of Ardeshir دروازه اردشير This gate was erected by Ardeshir; and from it there is a view of all the districts and territories. Op-

poſite to this is a hill, from which water guſhes with great force, and falls into an aqueduct, which was formed of ſtone and mortar, but is now fallen to ruin. The city is well ſupplied with running water; and in the vicinity of each gate there is about a farſang laid out in gardens and pleaſure-grounds.

'شيراز Shiraz is a modern city, built by محمد بن القاسم عقايل Mohammed ben alcaſſem Okail, uncle (or couſin-german) of حجاج بن يوسف Hejaje ben Youſuf. The productions of every city are brought to Shiraz, and are not taken from that to any place. This was choſen as the ſtation of the army of Iſlam, on account of its vicinity to Iſtakhar, during the war. The city was at that time built: it extends about one farſang, and has not any walls. Here is a ديوان divan (court of revenue, tribunal, &c.) and the collectors of the revenue go there.' P. 100.

The account of the Perſians may alſo ſupply an intereſting extract.

'The inhabitants of the warm parts of this province are of ſlender make, and brown complexions, with little hair. In the colder region they are fatter, and have more hair, and their complexions are fairer. And they have three languages: The Parſi (زبان پارسي), which they uſe in ſpeaking one to another; though there may be ſome variations of dialects in different diſtricts, yet it is in fact all the ſame, and they all underſtand the language of each other, and none of their expreſſions or words are unintelligible: The Pehlavi language, زبان پهلوي which was formerly uſed in writings; this language now requires a commentary تفسير or explanatory treatiſe; and the Arabick language, زبان تازي which at preſent is uſed in the divans, or royal courts of juſtice, revenue, &c.

'The dreſs and ornaments of the princes are, ſhort coats, or tunics, open before; and large cloaks, or outer garments; ſmall ſaſhes wrapped round the turbans, and ſwords hung by belts, with tight boots. The cazis (or magiſtrates) wear on their heads caps (كلاه), ſo that their ears are covered, the end hanging on their ſhoulders. Their ſhirts are of a fine texture; but they do not wear boots, nor the outer cloak. The ſecretaries, or writers (دبيران) of Pars, wear the cloak and boots, and their habits reſemble thoſe of the Arabians.

'As to the manners of the people in Pars, thoſe who are the chief men, and who occupy the higher offices in the ſervice of the ſovereign, are polite and courteous: they have fine palaces, and are

very hoſpitable. The people, in general, are kind and civil in their manners. The merchants are remarkably covetous, and deſirous of wealth. I have heard that there was a certain man of Siraf who had paſſed forty years at ſea, never leaving his ſhip during that time; whenever he came to a port, he ſent ſome of his people on ſhore to tranſact his commercial affairs; and when that buſineſs was finiſhed, he failed on to ſome other place. The inhabitants of Siraf devote their whole time to commerce and merchandiſe. The author of the book ſays, "I myſelf ſaw ſeveral perſons who poſſeſſed four thouſand thouſand dinars; and there were ſome who had ſtill more; and their clothes were like thoſe of hired labourers." But the people of Cazeroun and Beſa traffick on ſhore; and they derive their fortunes from this kind of commerce: they are perſevering and patient in the acquiring of riches; and the men of Pars, whereſoever they go, are powerful and wealthy.

'As to the different religious ſects of the people of Pars, thoſe who inhabit the ſea-ſhore are of the ſame ſect as the people of Baſrah. From Siraf to Mahi-rooyan, and to ارغان Arghan, are nearly all the ſame. The inhabitants of جرم Jehrem are of the Moatazelite hereſy: Thoſe who dwell in the warm region are of ſeven different ſects: and thoſe of the cold region, of Shiraz, and Iſtakhar, and Beſa, are believers in the Sonna (or traditions of Mahommed); and ſome are like the people of Baghdad, and have the Fetwa, according to the rules of thoſe who follow the Hadith, or holy traditions.

'In Pars there are fire-worſhippers, or Guebres (گبران), and Chriſtians (ترسايان), and ſome Jews (جهودان); "and the books of the Guebres, their fire temples, and their cuſtoms or ceremonies of guebriſm, or magiſm, ſtill continue among the people of Pars; and there are not in any country of Iſlam ſo many Guebres as in the land of Pars, which has been their capital or chief reſidence."

'In the books of the Perſians (پارسيان) it is recorded that ſeveral of their kings were of Pars, ſuch as Zohak, and Jem, and Feridoun, and others, till the time that Feridoun divided the earth among his ſons; and they were the kings of the earth till the time that Zhu'l'karnein (Alexander the Great) came, and ſlew Dara, the ſon of Darab; and the empire declined until the time of Ardeſhir. After him there were kings, ſuch as Shapour, and Baharam, and Kobad, and Firouz, and Hormuz, and others; moſt of whom were of Pars, or of Arabia: their dominion extended to the borders of روم Roum. But when an Arabian race conquered the whole world, Pars became as a conſiderable province to them, and the ſeat of empire was removed to Irak. The kings of Pars have been

highly celebrated; their history is so well known, that it were unnecessary to say more of it in this place.' P. 114.

The remainder of this account is interesting, and may illustrate some obscure passages in Oriental history. We cannot conceive what is implied by the expression 'hanged alive,' p. 127. If it be an Orientalism, it should have been explained, for in England we rarely hang the dead.

After a brief history of Hindustan, Ebn Haukal returns to Armenia and other western regions.

' دربند Derbend is a city built on the shore of the sea, on two banks of a bay, with two walls constructed so as to render the navigation of ships more convenient and safe; and a chain is drawn across the entrance, that ships may not enter or sail out without permission; and these two walls are formed of stone and lead: and this town of Derbend is situated on the coast of the sea of طبرستان Taberistan. It is larger than Ardebil, with many fields, and meadows, and cultivated lands. It does not produce much fruit; but the people supply that from other quarters. A wall of stone extends from the city to the mountain; and another of clay, to hinder the کافران Cafres (infidels) from coming into the town. Part of this wall projects a little way into the sea, so that ships may not come too near the ramparts. This wall is a strong building, and was the work of نوشيروان عادل Noushirvan Aadel (the just.)

' This city of Derbend is very large, and remarkable: it is surrounded by enemies, who have different languages. On one side of Derbend is a great mountain called اديب Adeib; on this they assemble every year, and make many fires, that they may confound and disperse their enemies from the borders of Azerbaijan, and Armenia, and Arran; they are as numerous as the waves of the sea that come up to the walls of the city. It is said that this mountain, which is close to Derbend, contains above seventy different tribes, who have each a peculiar dialect, and understand not one the language of another.

' The sovereigns of Persia have considered the possession of this city as a matter of great importance, and have established a race of people to guard it, called طيبران Tairberan: and there is another tribe called خيلابشار Heilabshar, and another called لكزان Lekzan: there are also two other tribes, the لنيران Leniran and سروان Servan: the foot soldiers are mostly of these tribes; they have few horsemen. Derbend is the port-town for خزر Khozr, and سرير Serir, and كركان Gurkan, and

طبرستان Taberiſtan, and كرج Kurge, and قبجاق Kapchak; and from it they ſend linen clothes to all parts of Arran and Azerbaijan. Here they alſo weave tapeſtry, or carpets, and cultivate ſaffron.' P. 158.

The account of the countries adjacent to the Caſpian Sea preſent may curious particulars. After a deſcription of Balkh the author proceeds to Tokhareſtan, and obſerves, p. 225, that in the mountains near Badakhſhan are found the ruby and the lapis lazuli. The latter ſubſtance, though now reported to exiſt only in Siberia, was certainly known to the ancients, and was probably brought from theſe mines in Bactriana, near the ſources of the Oxis. It is probably the blue jaſper of Pliny, of which he ſays the Scythian was the beſt kind, and was ſometimes ſpotted with gold.

'The province of Maweralnahr is one of the moſt flouriſhing and productive within the regions of Iſlam or Mohammedaniſm. The inhabitants are people of probity and virtue, averſe from evil, and fond of peace. Such is the fertility and abundance of this country, that if the other regions were afflicted by a ſcarcity or famine, the ſtock laid up on the preceding year in Maweralnahr would afford ample proviſion for them all. Every kind of fruit and meat abounds there; and the water is moſt delicious. The cattle are excellent: the ſheep from Turkeſtan, غزنين Ghaznein, and Samarcand, are highly eſteemed in all places.

'Maweralnahr affords raw ſilk, wool, and hair, in great quantities. Its mines yield ſilver, and tin or lead (ارزيز), abundantly; and they are better than the other mines, except thoſe of ſilver at پنجهير Penjhir; but Maweralnahr affords the beſt copper and quickſilver, and other ſimilar productions of mines; and the mines of ſal ammoniac (نوشادر) (uſed in tinning or ſoldering) in all Khoraſan, are there. Like the paper made at Samarcand, there is not any to be found elſewhere. So abundant are the fruits of سغد Soghd, and استرشينه Aſterſheineh, and فرغانه Ferghanah, and چاج Chaje (or Shaſh), that they are given to the cattle as food. Muſk is brought from تبت Tibbet, and ſent to all parts. Fox-ſkins, ſable, and ermine ſkins, are all to be found at the bazars of Maweralnahr.

'Such is the generoſity and liberality of the inhabitants, that no one turns aſide from the rites of hoſpitality; ſo that a perſon contemplating them in this light, would imagine that all the families of the land were but one houſe. When a traveller arrives there, every perſon endeavours to attract him to himſelf, that he may have opportunities of performing kind offices for the ſtranger; and the beſt

proof of their hoſpitable and generous diſpoſition is, that every peaſant, though poſſeſſing but a bare ſufficiency, allots a portion of his cottage for the reception of a gueſt. On the arrival of a ſtranger, they contend, one with another, for the pleaſure of taking him to their home, and entertaining him. Thus, in acts of hoſpitality, they expend their incomes. The author of this work ſays, "I happened once to be in Soghd, and there I ſaw a certain palace, or great building, the doors of which were faſtened back with nails againſt the walls. I aſked the reaſon of this; and they informed me, that it was an hundred years, and more, ſince thoſe doors had been ſhut: all that time they had continued open day and night: ſtrangers might arrive there at the moſt unſeaſonable hours, or in any numbers; for the maſter of the houſe had provided every thing neceſſary both for the men and for their beaſts; and he appeared with a delighted and joyful countenance when the gueſts tarried a while. Never have I heard of ſuch things in any other country. The rich and great lords of moſt other places expend their treaſure on particular favourites, in the indulgence of groſs appetites and ſenſual gratifications. The people of Maweralnahr employ themſelves in a uſeful and rational manner: they lay out their money in erecting caravanſerais or inns, building bridges, and ſuch works. You cannot ſee any town or ſtage, or even deſert, in Maweralnahr, without a convenient inn or ſtage-houſe for the accommodation of travellers, with every thing neceſſary. I have heard that there are about two thouſand rebats or inns in Maweralnahr, where as many perſons as may arrive ſhall find ſufficient forage for their beaſts, and meat for themſelves." P. 233.

'In all the regions of the earth, there is not a more flouriſhing or a more delightful country than this, eſpecially the diſtrict of Bokhara. If a perſon ſtand on the قهندز Kohendiz (or ancient caſtle) of Bokhara, and caſt his eyes around, he ſhall not ſee any thing but beautiful green and luxuriant verdure on every ſide of the country: ſo that he would imagine the green of the earth and the azure of the heavens were united: And as there are green fields in every quarter, ſo there are villas interſperſed among the green fields. And in all Khoraſan and Maweralnahr there are not any people more long-lived than thoſe of Bokhara.

"It is ſaid that in all the world there is not any place more delightful (or ſalubrious) than thoſe three: one, the Soghd of Samarcand; another, the Rud Aileh; and the third, the Ghutah of Damaſcus." But the Ghutah of Damaſcus is within one farſang of barren and dry hills, without trees; and it contains many places which are deſolate, and produce no verdure. "A fine proſpect ought to be ſuch as completely fills the eye, and nothing ſhould be viſible but ſky and green." The river Aileh affords, for one farſang only, this kind of proſpect; and there is not, in the vicinity of it, any eminence from which one can ſee beyond a farſang; and

the verdant spot is either surrounded by or opposite to a dreary desert. But the walls, and buildings, and cultivated plains of Bokhara, extend above thirteen farsang by twelve farsang; and the سغد Soghd, for eight days journey, is all delightful country, affording fine prospects, and full of gardens, and orchards, and villages, corn fields, and villas, and running streams, reservoirs, and fountains, both on the right hand and on the left. You pass from corn fields into rich meadows and pasture lands; and the Soghd is far more healthy than the Rud Aileh, or the Ghuteh of Dameshk (or Damascus); and the fruits of Soghd are the finest in the world. Among the hills and palaces flow running streams, gliding between the trees. In Ferghanah and چاج Chaje, in the mountains between Ferghanah and Turkestan, there are all kinds of fruits, of herbs, and flowers, and various species of the violet: all these it is lawful for any one who passes by, to pull and gather. In سيروشنه Siroushteh there are flowers of an uncommon species.' P. 236.

The work closes with an account of the towns in Bokhara and Soghd, with their distances in farsangs.

The appendix contains the original Persian of several curious or dubious passages. From an extract, p. 298, it appears that Samarcand, or the city of Samar, was so called from a conqueror, the ancient name having been Che. Yet it is commonly esteemed to be the Manacanda of Ptolemy, in which case that geographer has placed it far too much to the south. The volume concludes with two indexes; a necessary appendage to a publication which will be chiefly consulted upon particular topics by literary investigators; who are no doubt deeply indebted to sir William Ouseley for this labour and care bestowed upon the father of Oriental geography.

Persian Lyrics. (Concluded from p. 274.)

HAVING already offered some general remarks upon the Persian gazel, and examined the 'introductory observations' prefixed to the present translation, we now proceed to the gazels themselves, which are selected for this express purpose. They are eleven in number, and the mode of selection is thus expressed by our author.

'The reader is not to suppose, that the following gazels have been selected from the rest of the series, under any idea of their superiority in point of beauty or excellence over others of the diwan. Such a supposition would neither be doing justice to the poet, nor to his imitator, who frankly owns himself by no means so adequately acquainted with the entire diwan, as to presume to decide

on the comparative merit or demerits of each poem. He is at the same time perfectly aware, that these gazels by no means outvie, nay, very possibly do not even equal, others that, as well as part of these, have already appeared in print. The choice of them was entirely casual: but the order in which they are disposed, will require an apology. They were thrown into this artificial state of arrangement merely with a view to the progressive operations of Love, the passion chiefly described, with which the two first, that relate to the vernal season, may be supposed to have some collateral connection, from the influence of the climate, and the festivities so prevalent throughout the East at the period of their Nuruz. The first will therefore be found to be descriptive of morning and spring; the second, of spring, and the consequent festivities and youthful levities of the season; the third, of juvenile revelry; the fourth, of amorescency; the fifth, of incipient love, love-sick passion, &c.; the sixth, of plaintive absence; the seventh, of remonstrative plaintiveness; the eighth, of adulation, though testy and plaintive; the ninth, of plaintiveness with professions of constancy; the tenth, of hope and doubt of reconciliation; and the eleventh, of despondency.' P. 24.

The odes selected do great credit to our author's taste; we should, perhaps, have made some little variation, had it fallen to our own lot to have chosen; but they are all possessed of much merit, and are among the happiest efforts of the bard of Mosellay. The prose version is, for the most part, highly animated, and generally a faithful type of the original. Without any disparagement to the metrical paraphrase, we certainly give the former the preference. We are, nevertheless, aware of the extreme difficulty of exhibiting the poetry of Asia in European versification, and think the rhyme translation entitled to much praise. We shall select the third and fourth gazels as specimens of our author's talents.

' Minstrel, tune some novel lay,
Ever jocund, ever gay;
Call for heart-expanding wine,
Ever sparkling, ever fine.
Sit remov'd from prying eyes;
Love the game, the fair thy prize;
Toying snatch the furtive bliss,
Eager look, and eager kiss:
Fresh and fresh repeat the freak,
Often give, and often take.

' Can'st thou feed the hung'ring soul
Without drinking of the bowl?
Pour out wine; to her 'tis due:
Love commands thee—Fill anew;

Drink her health, repeat her name,
Often, often do the same.

'Frantic love more frantic grows,
Love admits of no repose:
Haste, thou youth with silver feet,
Haste, the goblet bring, be fleet;
Fill again the luscious cup,
Fresh and fresh, come, fill it up.

'See, yon angel of my heart
Forms for me, with witching art,
Ornaments of varied taste,
Fresh and graceful, fresh and chaste.

'Gentle Zephyr, should'st thou roam,
By my lovely charmer's home,
Whisper to my dearest dear,
Whisper, whisper in her ear,
Tales of Hafiz; which repeat,
Whisper'd soft, and whisper'd sweet;
Whisper tales of love anew,
Whisper'd whispers oft renew.' P. 40.

We add the prose version for a comparison:

'1. O minstrel with a sweet voice! begin an air that is fresh and new:
Call for heart-expanding wine fresh and fresh.
'2. Sit down from prying eyes and enjoy thy mistress, as a game, in private:
Snatch eager kisses from her fresh and fresh.
'3. How canst thou eat the bread of life without drinking wine?
Quaff wine to her dear remembrance again and again.
'4. O cup-bearer with legs of silver, I am intoxicated with the love of thy beauty!
Quick fetch the cup, that I may fill it again and again.
'5. My heart-ravishing angel makes for me
Ornaments of various hues and odours afresh and afresh.
'6. O! gentle Zephyr, when thou passest by the habitation of my fairy,
Afresh and afresh tell her, in whispers, the tale of Hafiz.'
P. 82.

This last beit or stanza, which in the original is exquisitely tender and elegant, is possessed also of much beauty in the paraphrase, though we cannot avoid thinking there is too much iteration of the word 'whisper' in the metrical version. This admirable couplet reminds us so forcibly of a parallel passage in Metastasio, that we must take the liberty of quoting it:

'Placido Zeffiretto!
Se trovi il caro oggetto,
Digli che ſei ſoſpiri,
Ma non gli dir di chi.

Limpido ruſcelletto!
Se mai t'incontri in lei,
Digli che pianto ſei
Ma non gli dir qual ciglio
Creſcer ti fa coſi.'

Of which the Engliſh reader may accept the following verſion:

Gentle zephyrs! ſhould ye find
The fond idol of my heart,
Softly whiſper 'ye are ſighs,'
But tell not from whom ye ſtart.

Limpid riv'lets! ſhould ye meet
Him, the ſource of all my woe,
Kindly murmur, 'ye are tears,'
But tell not from whom ye flow.

Before we quit this gazel, we ſhall juſt remark that the word here tranſlated *zephyr* is, in the original, *sĕbā* (صبا); and that although it imply generally a *gentle breeze*, yet its real and appropriate meaning is the *eaſt wind*, rather than the *zephyr*, which has generally been denominated the *weſt*. The ſame term we obſerve recurring in gazel X, and tranſlated in the ſame manner. We know, indeed, that it has been common thus to interpret it, and that the powerful authority both of ſir William Jones and the baron Reviſki might be advanced on the occaſion; but we are not to be ſeduced by mere names alone. We ſee no poſſible reaſon why the appropriate ſynonym of eaſt wind, or '*eaſtern breeze*,' might not be adopted, without any injury to the beauty of the poetry. In the following inimitable and parallel paſſage, in the common verſion of the Song of Solomon, we do not think any advantage could be obtained by introducing the term *zephyr* in the place of the north and ſouth wind: ch. iv. 6.

"Awake, O north-wind! and come, thou ſouth!
Blow upon my garden, that its ſpices may flow forth:
Let my beloved come into his garden, and eat its delicious fruits."

Yet the Hebrew verſe,

עורי צפן ופואי הופן.

might, with as much propriety as exiſts in the beit above, be rendered

Awake, O Zephyr! breath of Zephyr come!

The gazel which follows is, perhaps, the moſt exquiſite of

any in the whole diwan. It seems to have been regarded as such both by Reviski and the late lamented president, and has, in consequence, been translated by each of them. The version of the former is in Latin: that of the latter in our own language; and it exhibits no small degree of hardihood in Mr. Hindley to have attempted it after so able a master. Indeed, we cannot but regard this as a labour altogether unnecessary, and certainly profitless to our author's fame; and cordially wish he had bestowed the same time on some other gazel not yet submitted to the eye of an English reader.

'Fair maid of Shiraz, would'st thou take
My heart, and love it for my sake,
For that dark mole my thoughts now trace
On that sweet cheek of that sweet face,
I would Bokhara, as I live,
And Samarcand too, freely give.

'Empty the flagon, fill the bowl,
With wine to rapture wake the soul:
For, Eden's self, however fair,
Has nought to boast that can compare
With thy blest banks, O Rocnabad!
In their enchanting scen'ry clad;
Nor ought in foliage half so gay
As are the bow'rs of Mosellay.

'Insidious girls with syren eye,
Whose wanton wiles the soul decoy,
By whose bewitching charms beguil'd
Our love-smit town is all run wild,
My stoic heart ye steal away
As Janissaries do their prey!

'But, ah! no laureat lovers' praise
The lustre of those charms can raise:
For, vain are all the tricks of art,
Which would to nature ought impart;
To tints, that angelise the face,
Can borrow'd colours add new grace?
Can a fair cheek become more fair
By artificial moles form'd there?
Or, can a neck of mould divine
By perfum'd tresses heighten'd shine?

'Be wine and music, then, our theme;
Let wizards of the future dream,
Which unsolv'd riddle puzzles still,
And ever did, and ever will.

'By Joseph's growing beauty mov'd,
Zuleikha look'd, and sigh'd, and lov'd,
'Till headstrong passion shame defy'd,
And virtue's veil was thrown aside.

'Be thine, my fair, by counsel led,
At wisdom's shrine to bow thy head;
For, lovely maids more lovely shine
Whose hearts to sage advice incline,
Who than their souls more valued prize
The hoary maxims of the wise.

'But, tell, me, charmer, tell me why
Such cruel words my ears annoy:
Say, is it pleasure to give pain?
Can sland'rous gall thy mouth profane?
Forbid it, Heav'n! it cannot be!
Nought that offends can come from thee:
For, how can scorpion venom drip
From that sweet ruby-colour'd lip,
Which, with good nature overspread,
Can nought but dulcet language shed?

'Thy gazel-forming pearls are strung,
Come, sweetly, Hafiz, be they sung:
For, Heav'n show'rs down upon thy lays
Thoughts, which in star-like clusters blaze.' P. 47.

We subjoin the version of sir W. Jones for a comparison instead of the prose paraphrase.

'Sweet maid, if thou would'st charm my sight,
And bid these arms thy neck infold;
That rosy cheek, that lily hand,
Would give thy poet more delight
Than all Bocara's vaunted gold,
Than all the gems of Samarcand.

'Boy, let yon liquid ruby flow,
And bid thy pensive heart be glad,
Whate'er the frowning zealots say:
Tell them, their Eden cannot show
A stream so clear as Rocnabad,
A bower so sweet as Mosellay.

'O! when these fair perfidious maids,
Whose eyes our secret haunts infest,
Their dear destructive charms display;
Each glance my tender breast invades,
And robs my wounded soul of rest,
As Tartars seize their destin'd prey.

'In vain with love our bosoms glow;
Can all our tears, can all our sighs,
New lustre to those charms impart?
Can cheeks, where living roses blow,
Where nature spreads her richest dyes,
Require the borrow'd gloss of art?

'Speak not of fate:—ah! change the theme,
And talk of odours, talk of wine,
Talk of the flowers that round us bloom:
'Tis all a cloud, 'tis all a dream;
To love and joy thy thoughts confine,
Nor hope to pierce the sacred gloom.

'Beauty has such resistless power,
That even the chaste Egyptian dame
Sigh'd for the blooming Hebrew boy;
For her how fatal was the hour,
When to the banks of Nilus came
A youth so lovely and so coy!

'But ah! sweet maid, my counsel hear
(Youth should attend when those advise
Whom long experience renders sage):
While musick charms the ravish'd ear;
While sparkling cups delight our eyes,
Be gay; and scorn the frowns of age.

'What cruel answer have I heard!
And yet, by heaven, I love thee still:
Can aught be cruel from thy lip?
Yet say, how fell that bitter word
From lips which streams of sweetness fill,
Which nought but drops of honey sip?

'Go boldly forth, my simple lay,
Whose accents flow with artless ease,
Like orient pearls at random strung:
Thy notes are sweet, the damsels say;
But O! far sweeter, if they please
The nymph for whom these notes are sung.'

Vol. iv. p. 449.

The story of Joseph and Zuleikha (for thus the Persians denominate the wife of Potiphar) has been always in much vogue in this country, and a common subject of comparison. Zuleikha is, in the original, represented as naturally possessed of chastity as well as beauty; and it is the uniform character attributed to her among the Asiatics. In the elegant poems of Jami and Nazami (founded upon this express anecdote of sacred history), she is thus delineated; in both these she is the paragon of virtue. But such, at the same time, they represent the form and accomplishments of Joseph, that no female was capable of beholding him with indifference; and the lovely Zuleikha only fell, because every other woman must have fallen in the same situation. The present is not the only instance in which this tender drama is alluded to by Hafiz himself. In another gazel, and one of great excellence, though not para-

phraſed in the work before us, he thus boldly and figuratively addreſſes the idol of his ſoul :

ماه کنعاني من مسند مصر آن تو شد
گاه آنست که بدرود کني زندانرا

' O my moon of Canaan, the throne of Egypt is thy own ;
Now is the time that thou ſhouldeſt liberate thyſelf from priſon.'

In this beit Joſeph is the perſonification of beauty in general, under the metaphor of ماه کنعاني (*Mēhĭ Kēnānī*) or ' Moon of Canaan,' which was the ſymbol uniformly applied to him. *Mehi* or *meh* is probably of Babylonian or Chaldee origin, and derived from *men:* from *men*, *mehen*, *meh*, and *mehi*. But *men* ſignifies a *ſhip* ; it is ſynonymous with the Egyptian ϩιπ (*hip*), and has an obvious alluſion to the arkite idolatry of the Cuſhites. It would be eaſy to prove, if this were the proper place, that the worſhip of the moon was firſt of all attached to her creſcent form—her reſemblance to the ark or arc which was conſtructed by Noah, deified in Egypt under the denomination of Oſiris, to preſerve the remnant of the human race during the univerſal deluge. Hence, according to Plutarch (De Iſid. et Oſirid.) the prieſts of Iſis, during their annual celebration of the arkite feaſt, repreſent Oſiris, or the arkite deity, under the ſymbol of μηνοειδες αγαλματιον, a little *luniform* image. Indeed it is very obvious that the Greek words μην, μηνη (*mēn*, *mēnē*), ' *a month*, ' *the morn*,' as well as the Latin *mens*, importing the ſame thing, and even our own term ' *moon*,' are derived from the ſame radical. When in the Babylonian idolatry the *ſun* was a deity importing vigour, power, and maſculine ſtrength, the arkite or creſcent moon, and afterwards the moon generally, was made a ſymbol of beauty and excellence ; and hence its application to the lovely Joſeph. But we ſhall ſhortly have an opportunity of purſuing this ſubject at a much greater length.

In the enſuing gazel of the preſent ſelection, and we ſhall conclude with this extract, the following ſtanza is very inadequate to the merit of the original :

' Oh ! were ſhe but claſped in theſe arms !
Oh ! how happy would then be my caſe !
No veſt that infolds her *rude* charms,
Could enjoy, like my heart, the embrace.'

The proſe paraphraſe is far ſuperior :

' Might I take her in my embraces like the garment that enfolds her,
My heart would be at reſt on becoming near her as her neareſt veſtment (*chemiſe*).'

چوپیراهن شوم آسوده خاطر
گرش همچو قبا گیرم در آغوش

There is so strong a resemblance in this idea with a passage in Barnes's Ode XX. of Anacreon (the Hafiz of Teos), that we cannot forbear quoting it.

Εγω χιτων γενοιμην,
Ὅπως αειφορῃς με,——

'O! were I, love, the robe which flows
O'er every charm that secret glows,
In many a lucid fold to swim,
And cling and grow to every limb!' Moore.

The analogous exclamation of the empassioned Romeo is within the recollection of every one.

'Oh! that I were a glove upon that hand,
That I might kiss that cheek!'

The translation that has least pleased us is that of the sixth gazel in the present collection. The spirited interrogatory ام که مپرس which invariably closes every verse in the original, and occurs twice in the first, is very indifferently preserved in the English version.

Upon the whole, however, we think the present publication possessed of much merit. Mr. Hindley discovers a classical knowledge of Arabic and Persian, and often translates with felicity; and we have been induced to exceed our usual limits, because, like himself, we wish to excite the attention of the public to the polite literature of the East.

An Outline of the History and Cure of Fever, Endemic and Contagious; more expressly the Contagious Fever of Jails, Ships, and Hospitals; the Concentrated Endemic, vulgarly the Yellow Fever of the West Indies. To which is added, an Explanation of the Principles of Military Discipline and Economy; with a Scheme of Medical Arrangement for Armies. By Robert Jackson, M. D. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman *and* Rees.

IN the third volume of our New Arrangement, (p. 140) we noticed Dr. Jackson's 'Treatise on the Fevers of Jamaica,' which we considered as a work of no common promise, since it displayed an accuracy of discrimination and a precision of judgement on these subjects which we had not seen subsequent to the pub-

lications of Torti, Senac, and Cleghorn. The present 'Outline' confirms our favourable opinion; for, though we shall find something to blame, we shall meet with more to commend; and, indeed, our blame should be expressed with diffidence, since we find our author's ideas generally judicious, and always grounded on well-distinguished facts.

In his preface he acknowledges his having engaged in practice without sufficient opportunities for study, and candidly admits errors, which we shall again notice, from this source. But we need not enlarge on the medical history of the campaigns, or the disgraceful retreats in Holland and Flanders, or that of the scarcely more brilliant warfare in St. Domingo. The remarks on the proper management of recruiting regiments, and the conveyance of troops to distant ports, we must recommend to the attention of military commanders, to whom it is too often exclusively committed. We shall only observe that, in attending to the statements in the volume before us, the national object intrusted to them, and what may perhaps appear to some of more consequence still, their own character in the result of the expedition, will be materially assisted. In this part we shall only remark, what is afterwards more fully insisted on, that disease seldom follows, or is owing to fatigue: it proceeds rather from the fulness and inactivity subsequent to great exertions. We well know that, in the American war, the active part, the alert of the army, was uniformly healthy. We know that, in private life, incessant exertions, in a healthy constitution, seldom induce disease.

'It appears in the medical history of the present war, that armies in Europe have been nearly destroyed by artificial disease,— by contagious fever, a disease which never ought to be seen among troops, and which will not long exist, where principles of sound science are known and rigidly applied in practice. In the West Indies mortality has been great, and though the endemic be less avoidable than the contagious fever, yet it is evident, from a detail of the state of health in the different positions in St. Domingo, that the great loss has been chiefly owing to defects of arrangement,—to an injudicious disposition of the European forces. It might reasonably have been expected that the various informations, communicated on different occasions, respecting the preservation of health, would have produced, before this time, a disposition of military forces, different from that which exists: For though colonists and merchants, whose object is gain, and whose views, in forming settlements, are chiefly directed to facilities of trade, may be allowed to build towns and storehouses in bays, creeks, and on the muddy banks of rivers; yet statesmen, governors, and leaders of armies, who are supposed to possess the general principles of science, and

who are expected to embrace, in their arrangements, the interests and concerns of the nation at large, will not easily vindicate the practice of stationing troops on the borders of swamps, swampy rivers, or on scorching plains destructive of health, much less in towns, near swamps and sea-coasts destructive both of health and morals, unless where it is found to be impossible, that the purposes of service can be answered by other means. To determine this question requires the investigation of unprejudiced and capable men; the author does not enter upon the subject; he is aware that to offer political counsels, or to furnish military suggestions, may be deemed presumptuous or impertinent; but information, on the subject of health, is the duty of his station; and convinced that health has suffered, and still suffers from inattention and defects of arrangement, he could not in justice to that duty withhold a few remarks.' P. 99.

In this extract the attentive reader will at once perceive a distinction not very usual, between *endemic* and *contagious* fever. This distinction must, however, be kept in view, as immediately connected with the subsequent chapter, and indeed with the whole work. Endemic fevers, viz. those arising from the local circumstances of the country, are, in our author's opinion, not contagious. Many are attacked at the same time, but Dr. Jackson contends that this is owing to the general state of the air, not to personal communication; that those who are with the patients, who wear their clothes, &c. are not more subject to the disease than others not exposed to the effluvia of the sick: in fact, that one is owing to the miasmata of marshes, the other to the exhalations of the disease. We should be very willing to admit this simplicity of idea, and indeed, on the whole, we think it true, but that such unlimited doctrines may be dangerous. Allowing the system to be correct, it must be still considered that human effluvia, not in themselves contagious, may become so by stagnation and concentration; and that the doctrine itself is liable to various limitations, as the fomes may be of the one or the other kind, or compounded of both; and we think we have seen, to adopt the language of our author, miasmata become contagion, assisted by powerful exciting causes. We pretend not to say that our experience of the effects of miasmata has been great, but, so far as it has extended, contagion has been occasionally suspicious. In the epidemic catarrh, for instance, the action of miasmata is most clear and discriminated. In this disease, where a number in company has been seized the same evening, contagion cannot be suspected: all cannot have been equally exposed to it, and no one is so much affected as to have affected the rest. Yet when a person hanging over another in the evening has been seized the next morning, contagion on the other hand may be suspected. Again: disor-

ders originally endemic may be propagated by contagion, as the plague. We mention these facts, not to invalidate our author's doctrine, but to limit it, and to prevent injury from trusting it too implicitly and at all times. But perhaps he may mean only to include general fever, and we trust his hint will not be lost: we must once more return to the subject.

In this statement of our author's opinion we have anticipated much of what he has said on the subject of remote causes. When he connects miasmata with vegetation, and seems to resolve his two causes of fever into vegeto-animal and animal, we cannot always agree with him. We now know that fresh earth will decompose the atmosphere, and absorb its oxygen: we know that hydrogen is exhaled from marshes, and from agents so powerful the most destructive effects may follow.

The cases of contagious and endemic fever in the fourth chapter, and the description of the contagious fever in the British army in England, Holland, and Ireland, as well as the more concentrated endemic of St. Domingo, deserve our commendation, as perspicuous and accurate. The account of the latter is divided into the periods of irritation; of oppressed or impaired energy; of the dark cloudy aspect, with irritation or more frequently oppression; and of the remitting or intermitting stage. Dissections consequent upon fevers of the worst kind are not common, and we shall therefore transcribe our author's observations on the appearances evinced after death.

'Appearances, upon dissection, are different, according as the cause acts generally or locally, or according to the mode of the action. In the first form of fever, where the irritation is great, the re-action of the vascular system violent in the early stage, irregular determinations and destruction of organs are commonly the consequence:—the liver, the brain, and very frequently the inner surface of the stomach exhibit marks of derangement. The second form seldom terminates fatally, till the external appearances of the third are in some degrees present. When the third is rapid in its course, the spongy organs,—the liver and lungs are sometimes, as it were, suffocated or oppressed,—the lungs are like a bag filled with grumous blood,—the liver and spleen distended with black blood, in such a manner that their coverings are sometimes ruptured. In the second, and in the more protracted cases of the third, the venous system is turgid, as if filled by injection.

'The following are the more usual appearances, according to the changes produced upon the principal organs.

'Head. The vessels of the head, in the first form are frequently full and distended with blood; in some particular instances, marks of inflammation in the membranes, adhesions and sometimes cheesy exudations near the falx:—water was found in the ventricles on some occasions, but this was by no means a common occurrence—

it seemed to be more frequent in diseases of type than in the violent continued fever;—the distension and fulness through the whole volume of the brain was considerable. In the second form, particular marks of inflammation were seldom visible, but the venous system was uniformly and generally distended, as if filled by a successful injection; yet upon the whole the general distension of the brain was less conspicuous than in the former:—the plexus choroides was often a clotted mass of blood.

'Thorax. In the first form, the lungs do not often show much appearance of disease; in the second, they are irregularly spotted,—the back parts particularly are black with stagnated blood; in the third, they often appear, through the whole extent, like a sponge filled with black blood, but without any traces of actual inflammation.

'Abdomen. In opening the abdomen, the omentum and its appendages generally appear of a faded, olive, grey and dusky colour; the blood vessels are large and distended, as if from injection, but there are seldom signs of actual inflammation; the exterior aspect of the stomach and intestines correspond in colour with that of the omentum, grey, dark and marcid; the blood vessels are much distended, but actual inflammation is rarely apparent; the appearance of the inner surface is seldom uniform through the whole,—the veins are generally distended; but besides this, the inner surface of the stomach, in the first form particularly, often exhibits large spots, or circles of a bright red, resembling actual inflammation, in the centre of which are frequently seen small points, like beginning gangrene; the villous coat is also loose,—in the act of separation, and actually separated in some places; in the second form, more frequently than in the others, the colour of the inner coat of the intestinal canal is like brick dust, the coat hanging loose and almost separated; sometimes this takes place uniformly through the whole tract, sometimes it is confined to particular places or a congeries of distended blood-vessels, entangled in the mucous membrane, appear in clusters to bespangle the surface with bloody spots; the cavity is sometimes also lined or filled with black grumous blood. In the first form, or where black vomiting has taken place, liquor, resembling the grounds of coffee, is found in the cavity of the stomach; where the vomiting has not been black, the liquor found in the stomach is generally pituitous, viscid, and with flakes of mucus, seemingly portions of the inner coat.

'Liver. The appearances of the liver are various: where marks of re-action in the general system have been considerable, and where a local determination has taken place in extent and degree, the vessels of the liver bear marks of great distension; the blood-vessels and biliary ducts are then often preternaturally enlarged,—full of fluid blood and black bile; the colour is sometimes variegated like marble, with shades of red and yellow. In the third form, particularly when of rapid course, the liver appears sometimes un-

commonly large, black and diftended, as if fuffocated with blood, the membranes are fometimes ruptured, or they give way in the act of handling the liver. In the firft form, or where black vomiting has taken place, the gall bladder is more or lefs full of bile, often black and thick like tar or molaffes; the gall ducts are enlarged, and the bile is traced into the duodenum, tinging, with its footy colour, the contents of the ftomach and inteftines.

'Spleen. The fpleen is fometimes diftended, ready to burft,—or the membranes are actually ruptured; fometimes it is more flaccid, or like a bag of grumous blood.

'Bladder of urine. The bladder is often fmall and contracted, the fides of it denfe and firm, as if long in a ftate of conftriction: it feldom contains urine, or it contains it only in fmall quantity: on the internal furface are often found bloody fpots, or clots of blood, entangled in the mucous membrane, circular and infulated, like the impreffion of the point of a bloody finger on a pale furface.' P. 208.

Dr. Jackfon next proceeds to examine the characteriftics of thefe two kinds of fever; that proceeding from the vegeto-animal fource, and that arifing from the living fomes of contagion. The appearances of thefe difeafes are nearly the fame, yet it is neceffary to diftinguifh them.

'In forming an opinion of the exiftence or non-exiftence of contagion, it will be neceffary, on all occafions, to bear in mind, that as the conclufion is a matter of much importance in fociety, it muft not be admitted, fo as to be acted upon, without the moft rigid examination, and the concurrence of many corroborating teftimonies. If various perfons, brought into hofpitals on account of accidents, become affected, in a certain courfe of time, with a fever not connected with their conditions, little doubt will remain that a contagion exifts, or that the fever originates from that fource; if the medical officers, nurfes and attendants become generally affected with the fever prevailing in thofe hofpitals, while a fimilar difeafe does not appear in neighbouring places, or only as traced to this fource, the conclufion of contagion may be fafely admitted; if clothes, bedding, even the perfons of men, from this infected fource, be removed to a diftant place, a difeafe arifing in this place, and extending itfelf to others, may be juftly concluded as proceeding from contagion. Under the above circumftances the exiftence of contagion may be confidered as pofitive; under the following it is prefumptive, but not certain. If the form of fever, in a country where the character of the endemic is ftrongly marked, be irregular, fluctuating,—not exactly obferving the periods of tertian, fimple, or compound, there are grounds to fufpect a caufe of contagion. This was particularly the cafe on the continent in the campaign 1794. The fcene of that campaign was laid in a country where intermitting fever is the reigning difeafe, yet genuine intermitting fever ap-

peared very rarely, in such part of the British army as fell within the observation of the author. The disease was fluctuating in its form;—a febrile period of three, or of five days, was followed by a remission of uncertain duration,—followed in its turn, by a renewal of febrile motions, ceasing and recurring at intervals,—sometimes for a considerable length of time. The opinion of the existence of contagion, though not positive, will be strongly presumptive, where a certain form of disease, fever, flux, or ulcers of the legs, appears in a society or isolated class of people, but does not extend without the circle, unless from immediate communication. This was the case on the continent and in Ireland; medical officers suffered,—military officers, living under the same general atmosphere, but little connected with the subjects specified, were strangers to sickness. When fever prevails epidemically in a town, portion of a town, or district of country, and when nurses, physicians, and attendants on the sick, or even occasional visitors in the districts, become affected with similar disease, the existence of contagion is believed to be established; but this, in fact, is by no means the case; for the cause of disease generally diffused in the atmosphere of the district, infects those who enter its circle without the necessity of communication with diseased bodies.' P. 216.

To this is added a want of power to propagate fever at a distance from its source; and for this reason, prior to our having read the volume before us, we observed that the propagation of the yellow fever was not to be feared, unless with it we could import the autumnal constitutions of the Pennsylvanians. Our author thinks with us respecting the nature of this formidable scourge of the United States, and supposes it to be the usual endemic of the country, the common autumnal remittent. This opinion he supports with many satisfactory arguments and well-selected facts.

The prognosis is judiciously detailed, and the changes on the days, usually styled critical, ably supported. Dr. Jackson adds one observation, we believe new in the doctrine of infection, viz. that, previous to the fever actually forming, the septenary period is observable; for after receiving infection, though nausea and great inconvenience be for a time felt, no fever appears till the seventh, and sometimes not till the fourteenth day. There seems, in his opinion, some change going on in the fluids, before the cause assumes such a power as to be capable of producing the violent effects we have so often occasion to lament.

The proximate cause of fever has never yet been ascertained. Our author scarcely adds to our knowledge; yet he approaches the problem with so much judgement, that we seem to perceive it in a clearer light.

'The human body is formed to be acted upon by external causes: life is supported by the application of appropriate ones—it

is endangered by the oppoſite: the product of faulty combinations of matters,—animal and vegetable, and the ſecretions from deranged action of the living ſyſtem, ſeem to poſſeſs an irritating quality,—a quality, in conſequence of which, when in a certain ſtate, or when at a certain point of fitneſs, a train of unnatural motions are excited, diſturbing, interrupting, or in a manner ſuſpending the alternate and uniform action and reſt of the irritable and moving parts of the body, but not diſturbing the action of every part, or of every ſeries of parts, in the ſame proportion. When the chief force of the cauſe is exerted upon parts of locomotion, tremors, ſtartings, and various agitations prevail; when upon the heart and arteries, the motions become irritated, and the current of circulation is diſturbed; when upon the veins and colourleſs veſſels, parts leſs capable of expreſſing action, the motions ſeem torpid and languid, the circulation is ſlow, and the current finally ſtagnates; when locally on organs or parts of the body, the appearances are more complex. Sore legs, inflamed eyes, diarrhœa, and peripneumony are frequent forms of the local action of fever. When theſe are repreſſed, by a new action excited in the part, general fever, or other local affections frequently ariſe. The cauſe which directs this action of fever to organs or ſeries of parts deſerves notice; it ſeems to be no other than the condition of irritability in parts,—in other words, than the diminiſhed power of reſiſting cauſes which diſturb the ordinary and healthy operations of the ſyſtem,—in many caſes accidental, or ariſing from cuſtoms and habit.—In this manner, and in conſequence of this accumulated irritability, from preceding habits of action, the locomotive powers, the heart and arteries are principally acted upon by the cauſe of fever, among the labouring and active claſſes of men, the veins and colourleſs veſſels, among the ſedentary and indolent, the alimentary canal and its connections among the pampered and luxurious. In the firſt caſe, action appears to be increaſed, and the fever in conſequence is named inflammatory; in the ſecond, there is little active effort, the uſual train of movement is diſturbed or impeded, and the fever is denominated ſlow, nervous, or putrid; in the third, the whole parts of the organ are involved, and the mode of action is more complex, but the form of fever, reſulting from it, is uſually denominated bilious.

'Under thoſe circumſtances, cauſes, which alter this figure of locally diſeaſed action, give riſe to commotion in the general ſyſtem or in a ſeries of parts, till ſuch time as another diſeaſed action is produced in a remote part, or upon an excretory organ. The changes effected on this action, by accident or artificial means, are often rapid; and commonly effected through channels of communication not very obvious to the ſenſes: The manner of the whole is indeed obſcure; and it is not pretended that the operation is explained, by what is here ſaid. It however appears, from the moſt general view of things, that the febrile cauſe is a cauſe of irritation, diſturbing, but not increaſing in a natural manner, the action of the moving fibre,—on the contrary interrupting, impeding, and as

it were suspending the operation essential to health and life; by which means, the expression of its effects principally consists in debility and impaired energy.' P. 251.

Dr. Jackson, in this explanation, comes very near what we have often said, that fever consists in a change of balance, a disturbed equilibrium, probably both in the nervous and circulatory systems. This we think arises from a debilitating cause; for debility, with disturbed arrangement, constitutes the whole of fever, so far as it can be judged of by obvious symptoms; nor does our author's idea of that irritation, which does *not* 'increase the action of the moving fibre,' greatly militate against the idea.

The eleventh chapter, on the cure of fever, we think a very valuable one; but we need not analyse the whole; it will be sufficient to speak of some of the more leading principles. In the early stages, the use of James's powder, joined with calomel, is spoken of with respect. Free air is of course recommended, and accident seems to have suggested the utility of joining to free air, exercise in a spring cart. We well know the advantages of exercise in open air, yet journeys of fatigue we have wished to avoid; for common fevers, not apparently dangerous, have been more frequently fatal, so far as our observation has extended, when, from necessity, the patient has been removed from a distance in the earlier stages. We mention this not to oppose our author's remark, but to prevent it from being too hastily adopted without due consideration in this climate.

In the cure of the endemic fever of America, and the West Indies, the propriety of bleeding has been much canvassed. Our author is a friend to the practice, on what we think judicious grounds. When the fever is *forming*, his great object is, by a bold decisive conduct, to change 'forcibly the *existing state of things*.' The advice is judicious, though the language is not exactly what we should have chosen. A large bleeding is one of his decisive measures, and this is followed by James's powder, calomel, and affusion of cold water, as well as moving the patient in a carriage through the pure air, sheltered from the sun. In the second stage, that of oppression, bleeding is still recommended, and it was in this state we attempted to find some clue to support and explain Dr. Rush's facts, in our review of his work on the bilious fever of Philadelphia. The bleeding, in this state, must not be slight, but continued 'till a change in the *existing state* of the circulation be affected.' This our readers may recollect was the situation of Dr. Dover's patient, and the rule of his conduct. Even in the third stage, bleeding and stimulating purgatives are, in Dr. Jackson's opinion, highly useful. The more

minute and particular management of the remedies cannot be abridged with advantage. We are surprised that our author had not rested somewhat on the authority of Dr. Moseley, who has recommended a similar practice; but Dr. Jackson is very sparing in general of drawing from any source but his own. In the account of different methods of cure, the conduct of the French physicians, usually so much extolled, is spoken of and explained with great candour. On the whole, he does not consider their success as greater. The progress of fever is, he thinks, less rapid under their management: recovery is also more slow, but relapse is less frequent.* The method of cure by calomel does not meet our author's approbation.

The consequences of fever are very accurately detailed, and the local action of a febrile cause, either as thrown on the intestines producing diarrhœa and dysentery, or on the skin occasioning eruptions or ulcers, carefully examined. The subjects of the two last chapters are 'prevention' and 'convalescence,' which need not detain us.

The second part contains an 'Explanation of the Principles of Military Discipline, Military Œconomy, and a Scheme of Medical Arrangement for Armies.' The observations, in this part, are bold, original, and we fear unfashionable. The author's object is to abandon the stiff system of German tactics; to familiarise the soldier to labour, to active exertions, to a dependence on his own powers;—above all, to inspire his mind with a generous patriotism, with a love of virtue, and a sense of true religion, which, in the moment of active service, will give an energy and spirit which can never be suggested by the system at present adopted, of straight lines, of slow and formal motions.

On the whole, we think this work truly original, and that it displays much useful information; and we can recommend the author as a man of ability, judgement, and observation.

An Historical Description of ancient and modern Rome; also of the Works of Art, particularly in Architecture, Sculpture, and Painting. To which are added, a Tour through the Cities and Towns in the Environs of that Metropolis, and an Account of the Antiquities found at Gabia. Carefully collated with the best Authorities, by J. Salmon, Antiquary, late of Rome. Embellished with beautiful Engravings from original Drawings. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 10s. Boards. Taylor. 1800.

NUMEROUS, in a variety of languages, are the descriptions of Rome, once the political, and afterwards the religious, tyrant of the European world. Yet we do not recollect having met with any minute and satisfactory detail in our own

tongue, and the defect is attempted to be supplied by the present performance. We cannot, however, congratulate the writer upon his judgement or abilities; and he is evidently more conversant in the host of trifling Italian guides for strangers than in the grand sources of personal and experimental information. Hence his work, which has too much the semblance of a mere catalogue, is perused without interest, and laid aside without recollection. But let the author speak for himself.

'The classes of readers to whom the following work will be interesting and permanently useful, are so numerous, that it will not be surprising should an enumeration of so vast and ramified a detail of the fine works of art, collected and accumulated through successive centuries, by princes, nobles, pontiffs, and religious communities, be sometimes tedious to those who cannot feast their eyes with beholding all they see described in the following pages. But on these occasions the author has recollected the peculiar wants, the urgent demands and solicitations of men of taste, who, during his twelve years residence at Rome, constantly complained to him that so magnificent a city, so vast a repository of the arts, should be totally destitute of any work adapted to the English connoisseur: a work which he might carry with him to the various objects that ancient city presents, and derive some assistance, as from a guide to direct his researches or his studies, among those beauties he had travelled so far to admire, or in pursuit of that taste it was his desire to form and to correct.

'To these he would point out a few of the finest models selected by artists for their peculiar study, and particularly those on which architects have fixed their eye.

'The first and purest specimen of the Corinthian order is exhibited in the three columns of the Campo Vaccino, supposed to have belonged to the Temple of Jupiter Stator. Both their proportions and their execution justly render them archetypes for study, since even Palladio has bestowed on them the highest encomiums of admiration.

'The columns of the Temple of Concord are the only eminent specimens in Rome of the Ionic order, where the volutes of the capital stand in a diagonal direction. Had they been equally well executed with some other remains of ancient magnificence, they would have been perfect models. From them Scamozzi compiled his Ionic capital, so generally admired and adopted. The arch of Titus is a work of most excellent sculpture: the basso-relievos that adorn it exhibit the true forms of the sacred vessels brought from Jerusalem, and its columns are the best models of the Composite order.

'The Pantheon is by many esteemed a perfect model of a peculiar stile of architecture: while in works of utility the aqueducts and other public buildings demonstrate the great and permanent advantages arising from a national attention to national accommodation.

'The best modern specimens of architecture are those of Michael Angelo, Vignola, and Sangallo. The designs of Bernini were grand and full of effect, though he led the way for many innovators. The foremost of these was Borromini, whose extravagant works are disfigured by caprice and a constant thirst for novelty.

'In sculpture, one of the first and boldest specimens among the moderns is the Moses of Michael Angelo, in the church of St. Peter in vinculis.

'In painting, the antique fresco of a Roman marriage, at the Villa Aldobrandini, and the arabesques copied by Raphael and his scholars at the Logie of the Vatican, which last are close compilations from antiques, exhibit the same superiority in composition, design, and execution, possessed by the ancients in architecture and sculpture. Among the moderns, the paintings and frescos of that immortal artist are the finest studies. In his School of Athens and his Heliodorus are displayed the grandest composition with the purest outline and most elevated expression. In Michael Angelo's fine paintings in the Cappella Sistina are many sublime and accurate figures. The Descent from the Cross by Daniel da Volterra, the frescos of Domenichino in the churches of St. Andrea della Valle and St. Carlo Catinari, together with the Aurora of Guido, and his picture of the Trinity in the church of Trinità de' Peligrini, are works deserving the most critical examination.

'No history-painter should neglect to study the general style of architecture in Rome, particularly that of the middle ages. The forms it exhibits may be copied as classical, and are well adapted to back grounds through an extensive range of historical painting. It is thus that Nicholas Poussin has adorned most of his works with excellent success and effect.

'It would be impossible here to detail complete rules for the study of the artist, or pourtray the faintest idea of so varied, so comprehensive a collection of antiquities, as still remain in Rome, once the metropolis of empire, afterwards of religion, and still of the arts'. Vol. i. p. iv.

Our author seems a stranger to Mr. Gibbon's masterly description, towards the close of his History, otherwise he would have interested his reader by following the grand views of that able narrator. Nardini, indeed, appears to be his chief source of information; and as it would be beneath the dignity of criticism to explain the merits, or expose the defects of a mere catalogue, we shall content ourselves with a few extracts and observations, beginning with the author's *learned* account of the foundation of Rome.

'On the twenty-first of April, in the year of the world 4447, according to the Roman chronology, and according to that of Giovanni Lucido, in the year 3208, in the fourth olympiad, seven hundred and fifty-three years before Christ, in the reign of Ahaz,

king of the Jews, four hundred and thirty-two years after the deſtruction of Troy, Romulus, in his eighteenth year, began building his city on the Palatine hill. But it is believed there was a city built on the ſcite of Rome long before Romulus, by a perſon called Roma, daughter of Ulyſſes and Italia, and that this city being deſtroyed, Romulus rebuilt it; beginning to mark out the walls with an ox and a cow yoked to a plough, in the Ara Maxima, where afterwards was the forum Boarium, now the churches of St. George in Velabro and St. Anaſtaſia, thence through the Circus Maximus, and turning to the left, towards the church of St. Gregory and the Coloſſeum, through the garden of St. Mary la Nuova, in a ſtraight line to the hill of Saturn, now the Campidoglio, and returning to the left, to the ſpot where he began; thus forming a ſquare, which, encloſing the two fore-mentioned hills, and the ſpace between them, was capable of containing many more inhabitants than he had with him at that time. This new city was called Rome, that is, in Greek, *fortreſs*, in Hebrew, *great*. When it was finiſhed he had an army of three thouſand foot and three hundred horſe; and at his death, which happened in his fifty-fourth year, and the thirty-ſixth of his reign, he had forty thouſand foot, and near a thouſand horſe. In memory of this event, the Romans kept an annual feſtival. The emperor Philip, in commemoration of it, inſtituted ſecular games. And the ſenate and people of Rome have ſtill an inviolable law, by which [illegible]tion is obſerved in all their tribunals, to celebrate its memory.' Vol. i. p. 3.

All this miſerable proſe is more worthy of the reign of James I. than of the preſent enlightened æra; and though Mr. Salmon delights in calling himſelf an antiquary, we would adviſe him to be leſs of the antiquary in his ſtyle and manner, or he will never be underſtood by modern readers. To what miſerable etymologiſt he is indebted for his derivation of the word Rome we know not; but he is wrong both in his Greek and Hebrew. The Latin Roma is obviouſly derived from the Greek Ῥωμη (*Rōmē*) which means *ſtrength* or *courage*. The Greeks obtained the term from the Egyptians, with whom Ρωμι ſignified 'a man' or 'manly;' and the Egyptians from the Chaldees, with whom רום (*Rōm*) implied a ſimilar idea. Our next extract ſhall be from his account of the Capitol.

'The Campidoglio. This hill was firſt called Mons Saturnius, from Saturn, who firſt lived here; and, in the time of Romulus, the Rock or Fortreſs. But we ſhall ſoon prove that the rock was only that part towards the Tiber. It was called Capitolinus from a human head found here in digging the foundation of the temple of Jupiter in the time of Tarquinius Priſcus, and is now corrupted into Campidoglio.

'Among the many celebrated edifices that formerly occupied this

hill, the principal was the Asylum, erected by Romulus in order to people his new city. The house of Romulus was composed of canes, rushes, &c. and every year the priests superstitiously repaired it with similar materials. Here was the Tabularium or Archive; where were deposited the laws and consulta of the senate, and every other public act, written on tables of bronze. Vespasian repaired the Capitol, and had three thousand new tables made, the former having been defaced, when the library and other buildings were destroyed by lightning. It is supposed to have stood where the arches and doric columns are now seen, behind the Senators' Palace, towards the Campo Vaccino. In the lower apartments was a school for the liberal arts, called the Athenian school, and instituted by the emperor Aurelian. The library was established by Domitian, and is said to have been burnt in the civil war against Vitellius. Here was the Curia Calabra, where the minor pontifex used to convoke the people, and proclaim the festivals from the calends to the lunar nones. Here also stood the house of Manlius, the defender of the rock, destroyed on account of the treachery of its master. The temple of Juno Moneta was built on its site. The number of temples on this hill was very considerable: some make them amount to sixty. But the great quantity of statues in marble, metal, silver, and gold, erected to heroes who had deserved well of the republic, causing great confusion, Augustus removed great part of them to the Campus Martius.

'All these noble edifices, once the ornament of the mistress of the world, have fallen a victim to the ravages of time, and the still more destructive plunder of invading barbarians. At first this hill was only accessible from the south; but since the Campus Martius was inhabited, another road was opened towards the north. The first among the moderns who promoted the decoration of the Campidoglio was pope Paul III. who, after a design of Buonarotti, constructed the spacious steps.

'The two lionesses of Egyptian marble at the foot of these steps, whose mouths serve for fountains, were brought from the temple of Isis. The torso or trunk of a statue in porphyry, with admirable drapery, is supposed to be a Roma. The two grand colossal statues of Greek marble at the top of the steps, one representing Castor, the other Pollux, with their horses, were found in digging the foundation of a school for the Jews. The two grand trophies of Marius, on the balustrade on each side the steps, finely sculptured in marble, were brought from the Castello dell' Acqua Marzia, near the church of St. Eusebius, on the Esquiline hill. The other two statues are the sons of Constantine, and were found in his baths. Of the two columns that follow, one is the miliarium, from which were reckoned the miles on all the roads. It was erected by order of the emperor Vespasian. The other, with the metal ball, is said to contain the ashes of Trajan.

'In the middle of the square is the equestrian statue of Marcus

Aurelius, of Corinthian metal, found in a vineyard near the Scala Santa in the time of Pius IV. and then ſet up in the Piazza del Laterano. But Paul III. in 1530, had it removed hither by Buonarotti, and placed on this large pedeſtal of marble, brought from the baths of Trajan.

'The three palaces belong to the Roman magiſtrates. Thoſe to the right and left are ornamented with porticoes, within and without, from a deſign of Buonarotti. That to the left was appropriated by Clement XII. for a gallery of ſtatues, buſts, baſſo-relievos, and other antiquities; and the collection was increaſed by Benedict XIV. with many other ſcarce and beautiful marbles. Oppoſite the entrance is the famous recumbent ſtatue of Marforius, ſo called from the Forum of Mars, where it was found. It forms the principal figure of a fountain, over which are four ſtatues in the habit of veſtals. In the niches at the ſides are two antique ſatyrs, with baſkets of grapes on their heads. To the left is a ſtatue dreſſed in the toga conſularis. In the door-ways are two termini, and three conſular faſces, with a head of Plato over each door-frame. To the right of the entrance are many prætorian inſcriptions, a ſow ſuckling her young, found in the Via Appia, and a tripod of fine Parian marble, of exquiſite workmanſhip, found in Adrian's villa at Tivoli. Under the architraves, at the ſides, are two large Egyptian idols, one of baſaltes, with a turret on her head, and hieroglyphics on her back and ſides; the other is of red oriental granite, with the flower lotus on her head, repreſenting Iſis. It was found in the villa Veroſpi, in the Via Salaria. Here also are many ſepulchral marbles and ſome urns, bearing inſcriptions. To the left is the large tomb of marble, in which are ſaid to have been depoſited the aſhes of Alex. Severus, and Julia Mammæa his mother, found in the time of Urban VIII. in the Via Tuſculana. It is ornamented with hiſtorical baſſo-relievos. On the cover are the figures of the ſame emperor and his mother in a recumbent poſture, finely executed. The front is ſuppoſed to repreſent the alliance between the Romans and Sabines. The principal figures are Romulus ſitting in the curule chair, and Tatius. On the right is an augur ſitting, with other perſons looking on; and on the left a groupe of armed ſoldiers. Near this is a fragment of one of the eight ſtatues that adorned the triumphal arch of Conſtantine. Oppoſite to this is a bronze foot of coloſſal ſize. In the middle of the front is a pedeſtal with a baſſo-relievo, and a figure with an axe in the left hand, repreſenting the province of Hungary, as may be ſeen from the following inſcription—" Imperii Romani Provincia;" and on the baſe " Ungariæ." Towards the ſtairs leading to the gallery, in a niche on the right, is a ſtatue of Pomona, with a muſical inſtrument in her right hand, a bunch of grapes in her left, and another inſtrument under her foot: all demonſtrating her joy at the abundance of the harveſt. In the niche on the left is a fine ſtatue without a head, ſuppoſed to be an Apollo. At the feet of theſe ſtatues are two urns, on one of which is ſculp-

tured a female figure ſurrounded by ſea-monſters; and on the other a hunt. Next to theſe are two altars. On that to the right are expreſſed in baſſo-relievo the labours of Hercules; and upon it is a ſybil's head. Contiguous to this is a ſepulchral marble, with a foot of Hercules and a fragment of the Hydra. The other altar to the left is ſculptured with the birth of Jupiter, and upon it is the ſtatue of Endymion with his dog. Then follows a naked Jupiter, and a ſtatue of Minerva. At the ſides are two pedeſtals with inſcriptions found in the pyramid of Caius Ceſtus. On theſe pedeſtals are two ſtatues of Amazons of excellent workmanſhip; and next to theſe a cippo or cinerary urn. One ſide bears the inſcription "Salvos venire," and a woman ſitting with the helm of a ſhip in her right hand, and a cornucopia on her left: on the other ſide is a woman on a car, with a ſhield in her hand, and the words "Salvos ire." Next to this is an altar with ſome half relievos, and upon it another Minerva.' Vol. i. p. 59.

It is unneceſſary to point out to the learned reader many miſtakes in this extract; ſuch as that concerning Hungary, a name and region unknown till the tenth century; and we are ſorry to obſerve that the work abounds with errors equally puerile and glaring.

The account of that ſublime edifice, the Coloſſeo, or amphitheatre of Titus, we ſhall tranſcribe entire, as one of the author's beſt ſpecimens of compoſition.

'This wonderful monument of the magnificence and luxury of the ancient Romans, ſtands on the ſpot formerly occupied by a pond encloſed within the walls of Nero's palace, of which Suetonius writes, "Ad inſtar maris circumſpectum, edificiis ad urbum ſpeciem." This lake being dried up, Flavius Veſpaſian, in the year of Chriſt 72, began this celebrated edifice, for public exhibitions and feſtivals, on a plan formed by Auguſtus, nearly in the then center of the city. It was finiſhed by his ſon Titus in five years, and was the work of thirty thouſand Jews, brought by him to Rome as ſlaves. He dedicated it to the memory and name of his father. At the opening of this ſtupendous pile, on the day of dedication, five thouſand wild beaſts were killed, and that cruel ſpectacle was repeated for a hundred days ſucceſſively, while gold to the amount of ten millions was diſperſed among the people. Its architecture is wonderfully fine, being compoſed of very large ſtones, and conſiſting of four ranges of arches, decorated and ſupported by very thick columns of the Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Compoſite orders. The portico that ſurrounded it was 2350 feet in circumference, its longer diameter 845, and the tranſverſe 700; the arena or ſpace in the middle allotted to the combats 410, and its height 222. It had ſeats for eighty-ſeven thouſand perſons, and ſtanding room for twenty thouſand more, without incommoding each other. The numbers over the arches marked the entrance aſſigned to their reputed ranks;

and at every four arches was an interior flight of ſteps, alſo numbered to prevent confuſion. To defend the ſpectators from the rays of the ſun, it was covered with a ſheet of cloth, ſupported by large beams of metal acroſs the building, reſting in the holes round the top, and from which odoriferous waters were ſhed, and fell in a refreſhing miſt among the people. In the upper arches were ſtatues; and in ſome places the fine ornamental ſtucco ſtill remains. The middle was paved with large ſtones, covered with fine ſand. This pavement is now buried twenty-five feet under ground. Round the arena were dens for the wild beaſts. The ſeats for the ſpectators were ranged like an infinite number of ſteps ſurrounding the whole arena, aſcending one above another to the ſummit of the building. On the firſt and moſt commodious for viewing the combats was the throne of the emperor, ſuperbly decorated; and adjoining to it other balconies for the princes of the imperial blood. By the ſide of theſe were placed the magiſtrates, viz. cenſors, conſuls, prætors, ædiles, tribunes of the people, pontifices, ambaſſadors, and other foreigners of diſtinction. Next to theſe were the ſenators and Roman knights. The reſt of the amphitheatre was occupied by the people. There were two large flights of ſteps on the outſide, for the further convenience of the ſpectators, and to divide the crowd. The preſent remains of this magnificent work are ſaid to be leſs than half the original pile. The reſt is ruined, partly by the injury of time, but much more by the Goths, when they plundered Rome, and by the Romans themſelves, on account of the valuable pieces of metal by which the ſtones were faſtened together, in the ſame manner as the arches of Titus and Conſtantine. But plunder was not the only cauſe of the ruin of this ſuperb monument of antiquity. At a period when ſuperſtition had driven ſcience from the mind, this noble ſtructure, erected for public pleaſure and amuſement, was dilapidated by the Romans, who aſked permiſſion of Theodoric the Goth to repair the walls of the city with its materials; but after having proceeded to a conſiderable extent, it was obſerved that the licence granted was directed to the magiſtrates and people of Catania, ſo to employ the antiquities of that place. Afterwards, under Paul II. the church of St. Auguſtine and the palace of St. Mark were conſtructed with the ſame materials; and cardinal Riario built the Cancellaria, and cardinal Farneſe the Farneſian palace, out of its ruins. Joſephus informs us, that in the middle of this amphitheatre was an altar dedicated to Jupiter Latiaris, on which it was the cuſtom to ſacrifice in honour of the ſubject for which the games were celebrated. This ſpot is now occupied by a croſs. Thirteen ſmall altar pieces ſurround the arena, repreſenting the paſſion of Chriſt; and a chapel, built with the charitable contributions of paſſengers and ſtrangers, under the care of a hermit, is erected under the farther gate, in honour of the martyrs who have ſuffered here, as Juſtin the philoſopher, and a celebrated defender of the Chriſtian ſyſtem, Ignatius biſhop of Antioch, who diſputed with Trajan, and an in-

finite number of others. Benedict XIV. introduced the exercise of the via crucis, by a brotherhood, who have an oratory contiguous to the church of St. Cosmus and St. Damian. It was called the Colosseum from a colossal statue of Nero, which stood near it. This statue was one hundred and twenty feet high, and surrounded with solar rays of twenty-two feet, for the emperor pretended to resemble that grand luminary. After his death, Commodus removed the head, and replaced it with his own. The middle of the amphitheatre was sometimes filled with water, and sometimes even with wine, for the naumachia or sea-fights. At that time, however, the Romans were so corrupt as to consider it a luxury to view gladiators fighting, sometimes with each other, till one of each pair was killed; sometimes with beasts, under the same inviolable custom. These gladiators were slaves, supported at the expence of their proprietors, and trained to the art of skirmishing, first to do honour to the funeral pomp of great men, and afterwards to increase the popularity of their masters, by contributing to the amusement of the public. They fought with sword and shield, sometimes naked, sometimes armed from head to foot. At length the custom of indulging the public in this amusement increased to such a degree, that the emperors caused them to fight by thousands. This barbarous practice was at first confined to criminals or slaves; but in later times, Roman citizens, knights, and even senators, not only compromised their dignity, but sacrificed their lives, to flatter the emperors, by swelling this ignominious profession. Among these was Commodus, who acquired the name of Prince of Gladiators. Of the slaves and criminals, he who killed his adversary gained his liberty, amid the universal acclamation of the spectators. Sometimes they divided into troops, and fought till the total destruction of one of the parties decided the contest. When they fought for hire, as many did in later periods, their pay was called Auctoramentum; those who received it, Auctorati; and those who recovered their liberty by their valour, Exauctorati. The fighting of men with beasts was not less horrid than that of man with man; for, their natural ferocity being further irritated by the attacks of their adversaries, they made a most bloody slaughter of the combatants.' Vol. i. p. 115.

In p. 286 we are told that the Pantheon was covered with silver sheeting, while, in fact, it was nothing more than brass. But we have already observed that such mistakes are by far too common throughout the whole of the work: we are nevertheless ready to acknowledge that for an individual traveller to Rome, unacquainted with the Italian language, this book may possibly be of use. The engravings are beautiful, and consist of a plan of the city, abridged from Nolli, and some small prints, said to have been drawn by Edwards, which are little better than the wooden views in Nardini. The price is truly extravagant for so insignificant a performance.

Fabliaux or Tales, abridged from French Manuscripts of the XIIth and XIIIth Centuries, by M. Le Grand, selected and translated into English Verse, by the late Gregory Lewis Way, Esq. with a Preface, Notes, and Appendix, by G. Ellis, Esq. Vol. II. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Faulder. 1800.

IN the IXth volume of our N. A. p. 386, we gave an account of the first volume of this work, to which its author, Gregory Lewis Way, esq. did not think it expedient to affix his name. We are sorry to be informed that this accomplished antiquarian has been prevented by death from receiving the praises due to the masterly completion of his design. He died on the 26th of April, 1799, in the forty-third year of his age. His friend G. Ellis, esq. to whom the public are indebted for the preface, notes, and appendix to these Fabliaux, has, however, ably discharged the duties of an editor; and this posthumous volume has no less claim than its predecessor to the attention and patronage of the lovers of ancient poetry.

In the appendix (p. 287 to 296) Mr. Ellis has given a brief account of the education, habits of life, and literary pursuits of his deceased friend; together with some remarks on the style of his translations, which we think uncommonly interesting and instructive. We agree with him in opinion when he says, 'the style of the Fabliaux may be considered as original: it is not copied from any individual writer, but is evidently the appropriate manner of the author formed upon a deliberate and attentive comparison of all the best writers who have distinguished the several periods of our literature.'

Referring our readers to the general character which we gave of the former volume of this work as in most respects applicable to its successor, we shall only observe, that in point of versification and metrical melody this posthumous offspring of Mr. Way's genius, contrary to what commonly occurs in cases of this nature, is superior to that which was ushered into the literary world under his own immediate auspices.

The tales contained in this volume are thirteen in number. The Lay of Sir Gugemer—The Three Knights and the Smock—The Lay of Narcissus—The Lay of Aristotle—Hippocrates—The Priest who ate Mulberries—The Land of Cocaigne—The Norman Batchelor—Haéline and Eglantine—Griselidis—The Countess of Vergy—The Battle of Carnival and Lent—and, The Road to Paradise

We shall extract the whole of the story of Hippocrates, as affording a fair specimen of the manner in which Mr. Way has executed the task of translation.

' And now some months at Rome the leech profound
Had sojourn'd on, deservedly renown'd;

Grac'd, as beſeem'd, by Rome's imperial lord,
And by the vulgar like a god ador'd:
When one ſhrewd female roſe, the ſage's peſt,
And turn'd his homage to a ſcornful jeſt.
'A Gaul ſhe was, and of illuſtrious race,
And juſt her form, and lovely was her face;
Her great Auguſtus (for it ſeem'd his aim
To pay full honours to the ſtranger dame,)
Had for her won a royal manſion given,
With a ſtrong tower that rear'd its head to heaven,
And many a dame and damſel had decreed
To do ſuch ſervice as the fair ſhould need.
'The firſt few moments left to choice alone
Were given to view the wonders of the town:
On all worth note ſhe caſt a heedful eye,
Nor paſt, before, the twain new ſtatues by.
The ſculptor's excellence awhile ſhe prais'd,
Then, "What mean theſe?" ſhe cried, "and wherefore rais'd?"
The officious guide, accuſtom'd to repeat,
Makes known the inſcription that records the feat;
Whereat loud burſts of laughter ſeize the dame—
"I wiſt not this!" ſhe cried, "whate'er her fame;
I little ween'd that Rome, ſupremely bleſs'd,
This hour within her walls a god poſſeſs'd;
And ſince 'tis ſo, I marvel to behold
How folk ſtill die as erſt, when ſick or old.
Would this divinity, methinks, agree
To yield himſelf for one ſhort day to me,
My head be forfeit but his godſhip grow
A ſillier ſot than mortal ſots below."
'Some buſy babblers who the dame o'erheard,
(Such ſtill are found to ſpread each idle word,)
With headlong zeal retail'd the boaſtful ſpeech,
And wak'd the notice of the curious leech.
Self-love was rous'd; he felt deſire to ſee
This wond'rous dame at leaſt, whate'er ſhe be.
Wo worth the while! ſoon was he doom'd to rue
The luckleſs ſight!—her prophecy came true!
Her form ſo beauteous ſhow'd, ſuch ſprightly grace
Flow'd from her lips and beam'd around her face,
That, harneſs'd as he was with ſtrong miſtruſt,
The fair prevail'd: he loves, for love he muſt.
Wide ſpread the taint, till, all the man poſſeſs'd,
His reaſon tottering, loſt his power of reſt,
To a ſick bed confin'd ere long was found
By Rome's great lord Hippocrates renown'd.
'The emperor firſt condol'd, then ladies came,
And in the rear of theſe the ſtranger dame.

She, for ſhe own'd a keen and ſearching wit,
Right well the ſecret of the ailment hit,
And, in an hour when all the reſt were gone,
With friendly guiſe and ſympathiſing tone
She queſtion'd him, as one who ſought to trace
The ſtate, firſt cauſe, and progreſs of his caſe.
The luckleſs leech, who thought himſelf too bleſs'd
To pour his griefs into his lady's breaſt,
All baſhful turns and windings laid aſide,
Own'd frankly 'twas for love of her he died.
' 'Twas this ſhe ſought:—ſoft pity, as it ſeem'd,
Inſpir'd her ſoul for wight ſo well eſteem'd;
And thus ſhe ſpoke: " Deep blot of blame from all,
And heavier ſelf-reproach, on me muſt fall,
Should I, poſſeſſing power, refuſe to ſave,
And quench ſuch matchleſs merit in the grave:
Yet, were my love to you like yours to me,
(Aſk your own heart, and tell that heart's decree,)
What mortal means remain ſuch love to ſhow,
Known as I am, and eyed where-e'er I go?
Let then this word thy kind acceptance meet:
Reſt ſatisfied awhile with my regret;
Reſt ſatisfied thy welfare fills my mind;
And ſhould thy luckier genius after find
Apt means of intercourſe, ſucceed or fall,
I here anticipate and ſanction all!"
' Ceas'd the fair Gaul, then haſted to depart,
All bluſhing to have thus diſclos'd her heart.
But, for the ſage Hippocrates, her ſtrain
Shot hope, health, luſtihood, through every vein:
Soon to the palace, blithe of cheer, he hied,
Soon buzz'd about his Gauliſh fair-one's ſide.
" Well!" quoth the dame, the firſt fit time ſhe found,
" How proſper we? our budding hopes are crown'd?"—
" Ah me!" with doleful tone the leech replied,
" Or night or day I've known no thought beſide,
Yet, to this hour, it grieves me to confeſs,
Device has fail'd, I cannot boaſt ſucceſs."
" Then liſt to me, and thank me as you hear,"
Return'd the dame with well pretended cheer;
" I too have pain'd me, and forſworn my reſt,
If not more eager in my ſearch, more bleſs'd.
Thou know'ſt right well my manſion and my tower;
Beneath thoſe walls at midnight's lonelieſt hour
Wait thou beſure; for furtherance of the plan
Bear a large baſket, fit to hold a man:
Then, while my maids are huſh'd in ſleep profound,
One laſs, my couſin, to my intereſts bound,

Sh[a]ll with my aid a well-wrought cord let down;
Make thou the pannier faſt, and love's our own.
By our joint toil we'll hale thee up on high:
There joy ſhall reign in dreadleſs privacy."
' So counſell'd the fair Gaul, and amorous rage
To ſuch a blindneſs wrought the inſenſate ſage,
That the coarſe ſnare begat no jot of doubt,
But ſeem'd a maſter-piece of ſkill throughout.
Brief leave he took, with thankfulneſs o'ercome,
Then for a ſpacious baſket ranſack'd Rome;
And, ſwoln with hope, and wild with ſtrange delight,
Stay'd reſtleſsly the lingering ſhades of night.
' Night came at laſt: mankind in ſleep lay dead;
Forth with his load in breathleſs haſte he ſped,
And ſpied—O judge his joy that bliſsful hour!
The long cord pendent from the lofty tower.
To the firm baſket, with inceſſant toil
Of many a rugged knot and many a coil,
Its end he bound; then in the graybeard went,
And gave the appointed ſignal for aſcent.
Straight roſe the load, updrawn by female might,
Till, juſt as it had reach'd its midway height,
To a ſtrong hook the dame made faſt the cord,
And ſtay'd 'twixt earth and ſky her penſile lord;
And "O ſweet ſlumbers on thy eyelids reſt!
Sweet ſleep," ſhe cried, "with joyous viſions bleſs'd!
May Love's light dreams around thy temples play!"
So ſpake the laughing dame, and tripp'd away.
' Now wot ye all, what learned writers tell,
How, when in Rome this ſtrange event befell,
A ſpecial cuſtom reign'd, that mark'd the times,
Ordain'd the puniſhment for pettier crimes:
'Twas that the convict, pendent from a tower
Aloft in air, from morn till evening hour,
Should in a baſket expiate his offence;
'Twas nam'd the Baſket of the Judges hence.
' Grim with deſpair, Hippocrates look'd down,
Enſnar'd 'twas plain, the jeſt of all the town;
In countleſs mutterings ſpat forth ſpleen and gall,
And execrated love and ladies all.
But, bootleſs ire! and wiſdom now too late!
The remnant hours of night he needs muſt wait;
Needs muſt he view the hateful blaze of morn,
And, helpleſs all, hang there the general ſcorn.
In vain, when light his luckleſs hap reveal'd,
His twain upliſted hands his face conceal'd;
The penal ſign attracts each paſſer by,
And none but knew him as they drew more nigh.

'There through the livelong day the rabble rout
With ceaselefs mockery throng'd and boifterous fhout.
The wardens of the tower, who kenn'd his plight,
But ween'd the emperor had fo doom'd the wight,
Befted him nought: and now the weftering fun
Well nigh the circuit of his courfe had run,
When fome blefs'd chance led onward to the place
The emperor, that time hafting from the chace;
Upward his eye he caft, and wondering faw
A wretch fufpended, uncondemn'd by law:
" Who were the wight?—the medicinal fire!"—
Loud menaces of vengeance fpoke his ire:
But, when he learnt the wherefore and the why
That rais'd this graybeard mocking-ftock fo high,
He laugh'd full loud: the tale became the fport
Of him and every baron of his court.' P. 63.

It appears that in addition to the thirteen fabliaux, the titles of which we have recited above, Mr. Way intended to have inferted in the prefent volume at leaft five more. Of thefe Mr. Ellis has given analyfes, and has alfo exhibited his friend's tranflation, which had not received his laft corrections. The Lay of the Gray Palfrey Mr. Way left not more than half completed; but the deficiency is well fupplied by the fkill of his editor, whofe verfion poffeffes uncommon merit. This volume is alfo enriched with tranflations of fome fmall lays and fongs contained in the firft volume of 'Corps d'Extraits de Romans de Chevalerie, par M. Le Comte de Treffan;' and for the purpofe of exhibiting a fpecimen of the poetical ftyle, which prevailed in England at the time when many of the French fabliaux were compofed, Mr. Ellis has fubjoined the Lay of Launfal, tranflated from Mlle. Marie's French original, by Thomas Cheftre, who flourifhed in the reign of Henry VI.

Elements of Chemiftry. By Jofeph Francis Jacquin, Profeffor of Chemiftry and Botany at Vienna, &c. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray *and* Highley.

THE remark we have fo often had occafion to make, refpecting the difficulty of giving a complete view of a rapidly improving fcience, applies with particular force to the work before us. It is a tranflation from another language, publifhed in a diftant country, and from caufes, which it would be ufelefs to explain, has been unexpectedly delayed in our hands. To fay, therefore, it is incomplete, can be no imputation to the author; and to add that the tranflator has not fupplied every deficiency, will be no reflexion on his diligence or accu-

racy. It is more to the purpose to observe, that the clearness and simplicity of the introductory remarks, the comprehensive views of an intricate subject, and the judicious selection of the leading facts on each part, render these Elements one of the most valuable introductions to chemistry that we have yet seen. They comprehend the most striking and useful properties of each substance, and show, in the clearest manner, the different actions of substances both in decomposition and reformation of new compounds. It would be hypercritical to notice a few errors 'quos incuria fudit;' and it would be unjust to expect an account of discoveries made subsequent to the publication. The date of the original is not indeed mentioned, but we trace it nearly to the beginning of the year 1798. Yet, perhaps, at this æra the nature of æther had been more fully investigated and the properties of hydro-carbonat gaz better known than it appears to have been to our author. Some other discoveries had been also made previous to that time. The translator, who has added in the notes a few of the new facts, has not been always fortunate in his selection. The nature of the adamantine spar was known at the period of the English version; and various other information might have been subjoined to M. Jacquin's work, and some elucidations appended. *Some*, indeed, are suggested; but of these, as many have been refuted as have been confirmed by subsequent experience. This, however, is no great fault. Several of these doubtful assertions for a time claimed much attention, particularly Girtanner's pretended discovery of the radical of the muriatic acid, which many confided in, even of those who were well aware of that author's rapid glances and hasty conclusions. In another edition all these defects may be supplied, and these errors erased; and the real merit of the work will probably soon make another impression necessary.

We have said that this is one of the clearest and most judicious introductions to chemistry that we have seen; but as pretending to no new discoveries, and claiming only the merit of a clear explanation of a science already known, it requires not from us a full analysis. It is sufficient to give a short account of the author's plan, and a specimen of his manner.

The introduction relates to the reputed chemical elements, to chemical solutions and affinities; the matters of heat and light, to the atmosphere and water. The subjects of chemistry are considered as belonging to the mineral, the vegetable, or the animal kingdom; but in this way the most homogeneous subjects are separated; the acids and their neutrals are dispersed in different parts of the work; nor is it easy, without the index, to find where the properties of many substances are explained. Thus the nitrous and muriatic acid are noticed among the salts, the sulphuric among the inflammables; the

malic, citric, &c. in the chapter belonging to the vegetable kingdom, the phosphoric, bombic, &c. with the animal substances. The index, however, which is full and complete, will remedy much of the inconvenience resulting from such an arrangement; and to the student in his early career this will be no great impediment, as the general properties of acids are premised.

The chemical description of the vegetable kingdom is rendered more interesting by some very valuable pharmaceutical remarks; but on the subject of aroma, and of the peculiar nature of the cruciform plants, many curious observations had been published, at least before the English version of this work, the insertion of which would have rendered it more complete. When, however, we recommend additional notes in the second edition, we could wish that the subjects were explained with the same precision, the same perspicuity, which so eminently distinguish M. Jacquin's own work, and, in the mean time, the student will not be at any loss if he read, together with the present system, Mr. Parkinson's very excellent publication, 'The Chemical Pocket-Book.'

The different animal productions are very clearly explained, though somewhat might be added from the late experiments of —— Vauquelin. Perhaps we can offer no better specimen of our author's perspicuity than the following entire section.

'*General consideration of the proximate and remote principles of animal bodies.*

'It is obvious, from the analyses of the animal parts on which we have treated, that the following substances may be considered as the principal components of animal bodies: 1. Water; 2. jelly; 3. albuminous matter or lymph; 4. saccharine matter; 5. fat; 6. resin; 7. the fibrous part of blood or muscles; 8. salts; and 9. calcareous earth.

'Animal bodies are, therefore, much more compound than vegetables. Both have some parts in common, as water, saccharine matter, and lime. Other parts, on the contrary, are peculiar to each; thus plants contain volatile oils and some essential salts, whilst animals contain albumen, which, in vegetables, is met with in small quantity only. Finally, although some of the constituent parts of animals and vegetables resemble each other in some degree, yet they appear under circumstances by which they may be easily distinguished from one another.

'Such constituent parts are animal jelly, which, though it agrees in many of its properties with vegetable mucilage and gum, is yet sufficiently distinguished from these bodies on account of the difficulty with which it dries; the property of attracting humidity from the atmosphere; its change to a tremulous mass, and its greater tendency to putrefaction. Thus also the fibrous part of muscles pos-

ſeſſes almoſt all the properties of the gluten of farina, yet it differs from this ſubſtance in its greater tenacity and elaſticity. Moreover, the proportion of this ſubſtance is much greater in animals than that of gluten in vegetables. Laſtly, animal fat and reſin differ from expreſſed oils and vegetable reſins even in many of their external properties.

'The ſalts of the animal kingdom differ, in like manner, from thoſe of vegetables. Beſides the ſmall quantity of muriatic acid and ſoda found in both kingdoms, and the ſebacic acid, which is much more abundant in animal fat than in expreſſed vegetable oils, the vegetable kingdom is diſtinguiſhed by the oxalic, tartareous, malic, citric, and benzoic acids; and the animal kingdom by the lactic, phoſphoric, lithic, and formic acids, and the baſis of the ſaccharine acid of milk.

'All theſe proximate principles of animals may be reſolved into the following remoter principles, viz. oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, carbon, phoſphorus, lime, and iron. Theſe are preciſely the ſame in plants, with this difference, that the quantity of phoſphorus and nitrogen in the latter is very ſmall, which bodies, on the contrary, form a conſtant and principal part of animals.' P. 368.

At the end are added an outline of the phlogiſtic ſyſtem, and a deſcription of Woulfe's apparatus for compound diſtillation. From the former part we ſhall conclude our article with a ſhort extract.

'In a ſimilar manner they endeavoured, in their phlogiſtic ſyſtem, to account for moſt of the other phænomena in chemiſtry, to which the looſe and indefinite theory of phlogiſton afforded great facility. But the futility of moſt of theſe explanations is manifeſt, as ſoon as we inſiſt upon a ſtrict conformity with the eſtabliſhed principles of the mutual action of bodies upon each other, and demand an exact account of the weight and meaſure of the bodies made uſe of in experiments. There are many things in nature which we cannot explain, and which will always remain obſcure. It is therefore unreaſonable to reject a ſyſtem becauſe it is unable to remove the veil which hides the cauſe of many appearances. The antiphlogiſtians do not, indeed, arrogate to themſelves this merit; but their ſyſtem deſerves the preference which is granted to it by almoſt all the naturaliſts of the preſent age, ſince it explains moſt of the phænomena explicitly, uniformly, and with the minuteſt circumſtances; appears more conformable to the ſimple path of nature, and draws all inferences from matters of fact, without requiring the aid of ſubtle arguments.

'Nihil eſt in intellectu quod non prius fuerit in ſenſu.

BACO.' P. 380.

A Walk through some of the Western Counties of England. By the Rev. Richard Warner, of Bath. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

PEDESTRIANS we have usually found lively and cheerful: they escape the vexations of tired horses and uneasy carriages; free and independent in their exertions, they can at pleasure court the shade or bask in the sun. Mr. Warner in this tour, however, wanted shelter rather than shade, for the weather was unseasonably wet; but the rain did not check his vivacity, or quench the brilliancy of his fancy. Were we to be severely critical, we might wish that, at times, it had shortened his digressions, which are occasionally disproportioned. But even the hint is ungrateful, for to us they have beguiled some tedious hours of pain, and we believe that to no one they can be unpleasing. Let us, however, follow him, not indeed *passibus æquis*, but in a desultory path, to give some idea of his route, and of the entertainment the reader who accompanies him more closely may reasonably expect to derive.

From Bath, the residence of our pleasant pedestrian, Mr. Warner proceeds to Glastonbury, but returns to the north and west, to examine the Cheddar cliffs, which, we regret to say, have not yet been honoured by the visits of a scientific traveller. This north-western course terminates at Axbridge, and Mr. Warner proceeds, nearly south, to the embouchure of the Parret, and from thence, along the Bristol Channel, to Minehead, Lymouth, and Ilfracombe. Barnstaple and Biddeford next share his attention, and, advancing north-west, he enters Cornwall at Kilkhampton, visiting Werrington and Launceston; but the rain prevented his farther progress, and he pressed across to Bren Tor, Lidford, and Oakhampton, and, passing over a corner of Dartmoor, proceeded to Chagford, Moreton, Bovey-Tracey, and Chudleigh. From this last place his course was directed as far as Totness to the south; and, again crossing the Teign at Newton-Bushel, he advanced to Teignmouth and Exmouth. Impelled homeward by the inclement weather, he next passes hastily through Ottery to Honiton, Chard and Ilminster to Glastonbury. From Glastonbury he returns to Bath through Chewton Mendip, Clutton, &c. to visit Wookey hole and the druidical remains at Stanton Drew.

In this tour the line was well chosen, and comprehended a varied picturesque scenery; nor would Mr. Warner have added greatly to its interest had he really visited the Belerian promontory. The beautiful expanse of Falmouth bay, the bold gigantic features of St. Michael's mount, might have attracted his attention and excited pleasure and astonishment; but these feelings must have been purchased by many a weary footstep, through paths the most tedious and forlorn. The season of

his travels was not well chosen. They began in September; and had October been a dry month, as it often is, he must have purchased the advantage by encountering the equinoctial gales.

In the first part of his tour he is perhaps too digressive; but he expatiates with feeling on the ancient remains of Glastonbury, and, with a little archness, on the subterraneous passage from the George inn to——not the altar of the church, but the abbot's bed chamber.

'Time and rapine, violence and gradual decay, have made still more deplorable havock in the great church—a mighty fabrick, the building of which alone must have exhausted a quarry. Imagine, my dear sir, a cathedral extending in length from east to west 420 feet, spreading its transepts to the breadth of 135, rising to a sublime height, adorned with innumerable rich shrines "antic pillars," sculptured windows, and painted glass, the whole executed in the purest Gothick style, and finished with the most elaborate art; let your fancy, I repeat, represent a building like this, and you will have before you such a splendid cathedral as once existed at Glastonbury. Then let the busy workman go on, and people this enormous edifice; let him introduce 500 monks, the regal train of the lord abbot, pacing its consecrated pavement in gorgeous procession at the solemn hour of midnight, and illuminating its high-arched roof with a thousand flaming tapers: bid him strike the pealing organ, and swell the note of praise in one grand chorus from the assembled multitude, and he will add to his first picture, the most impressive of all religious services, the celebration of a nocturnal mass by the abbot and his dependant monks.

'To me, who contemplate with particular pleasure the ancient ecclesiastical architecture of this kingdom, and admire the pageantry of the Romish ritual, though I lament the purposes to which it is applied, scenes like the ruins of Glastonbury abbey afford considerable gratification. My imagination readily enters into "the deeds of the days of other years;" and while I tread the hallowed spot, reverts with ease to, and interests itself in the transactions which it has witnessed, the grandeur it has exhibited, the vicissitudes it has suffered.' P. 25.

The miraculous thorn is well known to be a late flowering variety. The country to the west of Glastonbury is gained from the sea, and now below its level: its encroachments are only prevented by dykes; and the burial place of Arthur, but for these, would still be the *island* of Avalonia. Of Cheddar cliffs we shall copy the description.

'Here indeed Nature, working with a gigantic hand, has displayed a scene of no common grandeur. In one of those moments, when she convulses the world with the throws of an earthquake, she has burst asunder the rocky ribs of Mendip, and torn a chasm across

its diameter of more than a mile in length. The vaſt abruption yawns from the ſummit down to the roots of the mountain, laying open to the ſun a ſublime and tremendous ſcene—precipices, rocks, and caverns, of terrifying deſcent, fantaſtic forms, and gloomy vacuity. The rugged walls of the fiſſure riſe in many places perpendicularly to the height of 400 feet, and in others, fall into obliquities of more than double that elevation. Whilſt pacing their awful involutions (through which now runs the turnpike-road to Briſtol) it requires but little imagination to fancy oneſelf bewildered amid the ruins of ſome ſtupendous caſtle, the gigantic work of diſtant times, when a whole nation lent its hand to the enormous labour, and the operation was effected by the united ſtrength of congregated multitudes. The idea of ruined battlements and ſolitary towers is perpetually ſuggeſted by lofty crags and groteſque maſſes of rock, which ſtand detached from their parent hills, and lift their beetling heads over the diſtant road below. Though the character of this huge chine be in general that of terrific grandeur and rugged ſublimity, it has notwithſtanding ſome milder features; Nature, in her paſſion for variety, having introduced a few touches of the pictureſque, by occaſionally throwing over the bare face of the rock a mantle of ivy, and ſprinkling here and there, amongſt the crags and hollows, the yew, the aſh, and other mountainous trees. Nor has ſhe provided entertainment for the artiſt alone; the botaniſt and mineralogiſt will have reaſon to applaud her bounty, whilſt he creeps along the crags of Cheddar cliffs, or treads the mazes of their caverns. Here the dianthus glaucus diſcovers its rare and crimſoned head, accompanied by thalectra, polypodia, aſplenia, and many other plants equally curious and uncommon; and there are found lac lunæ, coralloids, ſtalactites, ſpars, and chryſtallizations (*cryſtalliſations*.)

'On approaching Cheddar cliffs, I could not but notice the very pleaſing effect produced by a ſingular contraſt—

"Veſtibulum ante ipſum,"

at the entrance, all is gentle and beautiful. A brook, clear as glaſs, ruſhing from the roots of the rocks, leads its murmuring courſe by the ſide of the road on the left hand, backed by a ſhrubby wood, at the edge of which riſes an humble cottage, the calm retreat of health and peace, and on the oppoſite ſide the ground ſwells into a ſteep, ſufficiently covered, however, with verdure and vegetation to form a ſoft feature in the ſcene; but a ſtep farther,

"Primisque in faucibus orci,"

a ſudden alteration takes place, the rocks ſhoot up in all their grandeur, their black ſummits, ſcarred with the tempeſts of heaven, nodding ruin on the head of the gazing ſpectator.' P. 44.

The incidental remarks on incloſure, though candid, might have been ſpared; but the little epiſode of Joanna Martin is

natural and interesting. The whole of the tour along the Bristol Channel deserves much commendation for its accuracy and clearness. Minehead, Lymouth, and Ilfracombe, are well described; nor have we seen a better or more satisfactory account of the principal object in these regions, the Valley of Stones. Its nature is most clearly developed when approached in this direction. The length of the description alone prevents us from transcribing it. The source of the Tamar and the Torridge, which, though rising in social neighbourhood, diverge in different directions, and fall into seas widely distant, greatly disappointed Mr. Warner; but the source of every river is modest and unassuming, and gives little prospect of its future magnificence. Our traveller was equally, and with reason, disappointed in the expected sublimity of Lidford cascade. To the Tamar, however, he was afterwards reconciled.

'Shortly after this (near Milton Abbot) inclination, my old friend the Tamar again introduced himself to me, but in a very different character to what he wore when I had first the pleasure of his acquaintance. He was now a deep majestic river, flowing silently through rich meadows, whose fertile banks bore grateful testimony to the fecundating influence of his waters. At Greystone-bridge he assumed peculiar beauty, and with the aid of his banks and woods formed a scene strikingly picturesque. Here the Tamar, gently murmuring over a pebbly bed, leads his stream under a light and neat stone bridge, most tastily ornamented with a thin veil of ivy, and consisting of seven arches, which are but partially seen through the alders, willows, and other waving plants which fringe the margin of the stream. A narrow strip of meadow curbs the river on the left hand, skirted with an airy fillet of tall elegant ash and beech trees, backed by a solemn wood of oak. After shooting through the bridge, the Tamar makes a bold sweep to the right, which introduces a magnificent steep bank in the front of the picture, one deep mass of shade from top to bottom. A little cottage (the turnpike-house) at the further end of the bridge, just discerned through the wood of the fore-ground, is a happy circumstance in the enchanting scene.' P. 150.

Of the Lid at Lidford-bridge also he speaks respectfully.

'On my approach to Lidford, the river, which I had seen at a distance, approximated also, and about half a mile before I reached the public-house I crossed a small bridge thrown over a narrow gully, the sides of which were so obscured by wood, that nothing extraordinary was presented to the eye. But this spot only required observation to make it extremely impressive. Hither my guide again led me, and placed me in a situation where I could discover all its parts. The scene which here displayed itself bore a strong resemblance to that at the Devil's-bridge, though upon a less scale

than it, and accompanied with fewer circumstances of horror. A deep rocky rent, presenting on each side a rugged perpendicular precipice of nearly one hundred feet, but of a very narrow breadth, opens from a glen at right angles with the road; through whose gloomy bottom the little river Lid, violent even in infancy, pushes its waters with irresistible fury. Over the narrowest part of this chasm a bridge is thrown, and the turnpike road conducted. Below this, at a short distance, the fissure gradually spreads its rocky jaws; the bottom opens, and instead of the dark precipices which have hitherto over-hung and obscured the struggling river, it now emerges into day, and rolls its murmuring current through a winding valley, confined between magnificent banks darkened with woods, which swell into bold promontories, or fall back into sweeping recesses, till they are lost to the eye in distance. Thickly shaded by trees which shoot out from the sides of the rent, the scene at Lidford-bridge is not so terrific as it would have been, had a little more light been let in upon the abyss, just sufficient to produce a darkness visible; for though the imagination do not like to have its structures intermeddled with, or its work performed for it, yet it requires some materials to be provided for its operations. As it is, however, the chasm cannot be regarded without shuddering, nor will the stoutest heart meditate unappalled upon the dreadful anecdotes connected with the spot.' P. 153.

The descriptions of Chudleigh, with its stupendous lime rocks, of Totness and Dartington, which he justly thinks never belonged to the Knights Templars, are interesting; and of the little bathing places, Teignmouth, Dawlish, and Exmouth, by no means unpleasing. He neither visited Mamhead nor Powderham. The weather prevented many remarks in our author's return. He chiefly enlarges on Wookey-hole and Stanton-Drew, which nevertheless does not derive the adjunct from the druids, but from a former inhabitant. Druidical remains, as they are called, abound, however, in this spot, though Mr. Warner thinks lightly of Druidical learning or power: the one was little raised above the knowledge of the vulgar, and the other not above the labour of numbers, assisted with a small proportion of mechanical science.

This pleasing little tour is adorned with a wooden vignette of the road prefixed to each letter, and with two small etched and tinted plates of Berry Pomeroy castle, and of the simple unadorned church of Culbone on the Bristol Channel.

The Annual Anthology. Volume II.* 1800. *8vo.* 6s. *Boards.* Longman *and* Rees.

THE compilation of anthologies may, at first view, appear an easy task, but upon reflection it will be found attended with peculiar difficulties. The selection of valuable fugitive pieces requires no common proportion of judgement, no ordinary degree of taste. Even the poet himself, so far from being able to stand the ordeal of foreign criticism, too frequently produces effusions which are not entirely satisfactory in the estimation of his own fond and flattering fancy. Under these circumstances, the dangerous convenience and overweaning complaisance of a periodical miscellany ushers occasionally into light compositions which would otherwise have quietly slept in the portfolio, or been subject to a future revision.

This is the essential defect of all anthologies, or collections of poetry unedited by the authors themselves: a defect to which, from their very nature, they are almost inevitably subject. We were not therefore surprised to find in the second volume of the work before us many pieces which do not rise above mediocrity. But we are happy to repeat the opinion we pronounced upon the first volume of this publication, viz. that it contains much easy versification, and many genuine traits of the poetic art.

In 'The Child of Sorrow's Tale' we find touches of the most impressive pathos.

'Deny, but do not taunt a maid
Who never scorn with scorn repays;
Proud man, though now I ask your aid
Mine once, alas! were happier days.
But Sorrow mark'd me for her own
Before I told my twentieth year—
Yet when my friends began to frown,
I but reproach'd them with—a tear.

'I ne'er could frame the harsh reply,
The look unkind by feeling fear'd,
E'en when I met Disdain's cold eye,
E'en when I cruel language heard.
I've seen my friend, my earliest friend,
Refuse my tale of woe to hear;
Yet still unwilling to offend,
All my remembrance was—a tear.

'And I have known the slanderer's tongue
My fame with vile dishonour taint,
Yet on my lips no curses hung,
Tho' mournful, mild was my complaint.

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* See our XXVIIIth Vol. New Arr. p. 82.

And I was forc'd by cruel power
  To leave the ſcenes I held moſt dear:
O! 'twas indeed a trying hour!
  Yet all my language was—a tear.

' And I have known the youth I lov'd
  Retract the vows he ſwore to me,
Behold my pallid cheek unmoved,
  And ſmiling boaſt that he was free!
Yet I was calm—and (hour of dread!)
  I ſaw him woo a maid more dear—
But I was mute, I only ſhed
  No—no!—I could not ſhed a tear!

' Ah! full was then my cup of grief—
  Friends, fortune, lover, fame, all loſt—
A beggar now I aſk relief,
  A ſmall, a trifling boon at moſt.
Still can you chide me from your door?
  Ah, no!—your looks compaſſion wear—
So large a gift!—Oh! words were poor—
  I thank, I bleſs you in—a tear.' P. 27.

' The Battle of Blenheim' archly conveys, in ſtrains of poetic ſimplicity, a moſt affecting moral.

' It was a ſummer evening,
  Old Kaſpar's work was done;
And he before his cottage door
  Was ſitting in the ſun,
And by him ſported on the green
His little grandchild Wilhelmine.

' She ſaw her brother Peterkin
  Roll ſomething large and round,
That he beſide the rivulet
  In playing there had found;
He came to aſk what he had found,
That was ſo large, and ſmooth, and round.

' Old Kaſpar took it from the boy
  Who ſtood expectant by;
And then the old man ſhook his head,
  And with a natural ſigh,
'Tis ſome poor fellow's ſcull, ſaid he,
Who fell in the great victory.

' I find them in the garden, for
  There's many here about,
And often when I go to plough,
  The ploughſhare turns them out;

For many thousand men, said he,
Were slain in the great victory.

'Now tell us what 'twas all about,
Young Peterkin he cries.
And little Wilhelmine looks up
With wonder-waiting eyes;
Now tell us all about the war,
And what they kill'd each other for.

'It was the English, Kaspar cried,
That put the French to rout;
But what they kill'd each other for,
I could not well make out.
But every body said, quoth he,
That 'twas a famous victory.

'My father lived at Blenheim then,
Yon little stream hard by,
They burnt his dwelling to the ground
And he was forced to fly;
So with his wife and child he fled,
Nor had he where to rest his head.

'With fire and sword the country round
Was wasted far and wide,
And many a childing mother then,
And new-born infant died.
But things like that, you know, must be
At every famous victory.

'They say it was a shocking sight
After the field was won,
For many thousand bodies here
Lay rotting in the sun;
But things like that, you know, must be
After a famous victory.

'Great praise the duke of Marlbro' won
And our good prince Eugene.—
Why 'twas a very wicked thing!
Said little Wilhelmine.
Nay—nay—my little girl, quoth he,
It was a famous victory.

'And every body praised the duke
Who such a fight did win.
But what good came of it at last?—
Quoth little Peterkin.
Why that I cannot tell, said he,
But 'twas a famous victory.' P. 34.

The 'Lines to Sarah' are elegant; and difplay in flowing numbers the ardour of pure affection.

'Now Spring's ambrofial fingers pour
Of vernal buds a breathing fhower,
  And fweetly fmiles the blue-eyed fky;
I love unheard, unfeen, to fteal
Along the verdure-vefted vale,
  For as I ftray, to Fancy's eye
Each lovelier fhape of nature view'd
Difplays, in fweet fimilitude,
The peerlefs graces that entwine
Around my Sarah's form divine.

'The lucid dew-drop twinkling nigh,
Recalls to thought her fparkling eye
  Illumin'd with a liquid light;
The ftrawberry blufhing on its bed
Her rapture-breathing lip as red;
  The vale-nurft lily's bell fo white,
Her fnowy bofom's gentle fwell,
Where neftling loves delight to dwell;
And dimly, in the ftreamlet's breaft,
By Zephyr's dimpling kiffes preft,
Is character'd to Fancy's eye,
Her playful fmile's ftrange witcherie.

'Thus, tho' by Fate compell'd to rove
Far abfent from the maid I love,
Kind Fancy's magic fun-beams pour
A gleam of gladnefs on the hour,
The clouds difpelling that opprefs
My inmoft heart with heavinefs.

'And oft the fprite with fhapings fweet
Delights to fhadow a retreat,
Embofom'd in fome cottaged glen,
Far from the fordid cares of men.
See! round the porch green ivies twine,
In cluft'ring union with the vine;
And from the chimney, trailing high,
A little fmoke juft ftains the fky.

'E'en now within my reed-roof'd cot,
The world forgetting and forgot,
Methinks I feel thy bofom preft
Againft my highly-beating breaft:
Methinks my lips with rapture dwell
On thy ripe lips nectarious fwell,
And now delirious tranfports dart
Thro' pulfe and nerve, thro' brain and heart,

And now exanimate I lie,
In the soft trance of extacy.

'Ah! Sarah—Sarah! must I find
These dreams but phantoms of the mind!
These smiling visions but the brood
Of Fancy, in her magic mood!' P. 67.

It is difficult to characterise the legendary tale of 'St. Romuald.' We shall let the reader judge for himself, by copying it completely.

'One day, it matters not to know
How many hundred years ago,
A Spaniard stopt at a posada door:
The landlord came to welcome him, and chat
Of this and that,
For he had seen the traveller there before.

'Does holy Romuald dwell
Still in his cell?
The traveller ask'd, or is the old man dead?
No, he has left his loving flock, and we
So good a Christian never more shall see,
The landlord answer'd, and he shook his head.

'Ah, Sir! we knew his worth,
If ever there did live a saint on earth!
Why, Sir, he always used to wear a shirt
For thirty days, all seasons, day and night:
Good man, he knew it was not right
For dust and ashes to fall out with dirt,
And then he only hung it out in the rain,
And put it on again.

'There used to be rare work
With him and the devil there in yonder cell,
For Satan used to maul him like a Turk.
There they would sometimes fight
All through a winter's night,
From sun-set until morn,
He with a cross, the devil with his horn,
The devil spitting fire with might and main
Enough to make St. Michael half afraid,
He splashing holy water till he made
His red hide hiss again,
And the hot vapour fill'd the little cell.
This was so common that his face became
All black and yellow with the brimstone flame,
And then he smelt—Oh Lord! how he did smell!

' Then, Sir! to ſee how he would mortify
The fleſh! if any one had dainty fare,
Good man he would come there,
And look at all the delicate things, and cry,
O belly belly!
You would be gormandiſing now I know.
But it ſhall not be ſo,
Home to your bread and water—home I tell ye!

' But, quoth the traveller, wherefore did he leave
A flock that knew his ſaintly worth ſo well?
Why, ſaid the landlord, Sir, it ſo befell
He heard unluckily of our intent
To do him a great honour, and you know
He was not covetous of fame below,
And ſo by ſtealth one night away he went.

' What was this honour then? the traveller cried;
Why, Sir, the hoſt replied,
We thought perhaps that he might one day leave us,
And then ſhould ſtrangers have
The good man's grave,
A loſs like that would naturally grieve us,
For he'll be made a ſaint of to be ſure.
Therefore we thought it prudent to ſecure
His relics while we might,
And ſo we meant to ſtrangle him one night.' P. 97.

The narrow limits to which we are neceſſarily confined prevent us from making more extracts from this entertaining volume. We ſhall therefore conclude by obſerving, that 'Recantation,' by Mr. Coleridge; 'The Mad Woman;' 'An Evening Walk,' by Mrs. Opie; the 'Ode to Mr. Packwood;' Mrs. Robinſon's 'Jaſper;' and Mr. Cottle's 'Markoff,' appear to us to poſſeſs conſiderable merit: but that the verſes 'To a Bee;' Mr. Everard's addreſs 'To a Hedge-Sparrow;' 'The King of the Crocodiles;' divers effuſions of Mr. Charles Lloyd; 'The Wedding,' *cum multis aliis*, are diſgraced by that careleſſneſs, or rather that affectation of careleſſneſs, which we have often had occaſion to notice and reprobate of late as abſurd and pretended attempts at genuine ſimplicity and eaſe.

Sermons on several Subjects and Occasions. By the late James Riddoch, A. M. &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Rivingtons.

THE sermons contained in these three volumes are upon a variety of topics, but principally those of a practical nature. The worthy author appears to have thought much, and justly, upon the subjects he discusses: and in his manner of handling them he discovers many of those excellencies which constitute a good preacher. His plans are simple, yet judicious; his arguments sound and forcible; he seldom fails to adduce the most impressive motives in applying acknowledged truths to the heart, as well as to the regulation of the life and conduct; while at times he indulges in flights of considerable sublimity and ardour, interspersing those pointed appeals, and addressing those pathetic exhortations to the conscience, which we should think could not fail to leave a good and abiding influence upon the minds of his hearers.

In the two sermons in the first volume, entitled 'The Progress of our Time' and 'Reflections on a New Year,' a variety of pertinent observations are offered, with which we were particularly pleased; and which, though not altogether new, are still not the less useful, as containing food for devout meditation, motives for thankfulness to the supreme being for past blessings bestowed, and a ground of confidence in him for all future and needed favours.

In the sermon 'On the means of Salvation,' which appears to have been preached after a set of discourses, we find the following declaration of a faithful minister to his flock, whose conscience bears testimony to this truth, that he has not 'shunned to declare the whole counsel of God.'

'You have now, from advent to advent, perhaps for many years, enjoyed many spiritual advantages, and all the means of salvation with which Jesus Christ has blessed his church. Through God's good providence, the sacraments of our religion have been rightly and duly administered, the festivals regularly celebrated, the holy scriptures that are able to make you wise unto salvation, read both in regular courses and selected passages; opportunities of approaching the throne of God with united prayers, and pouring out your hearts before him in his house, have been offered three different days in every seven; and there is hardly a promise or a threatning in all the holy scriptures, that has not, during this course of instruction, been published within these walls. Scarce an example either of the mercy or justice of God recorded there, that has not been set before you; not a pattern of piety and virtue, not a vicious character marked in the word of God, that has not been pointed out either to excite you

to imitation, or to raiſe your abhorrence; not a duty incumbent on you, either as men or Chriſtians, that has not been explained and recommended by a great variety of arguments, nor any vice whoſe happy conſequences have not been expoſed, its ſeveral allurements ſet before you, and the way pointed out to reſiſt and overcome them.' Vol. i. P. 320.

We find alſo in this volume two ſermons 'On raſh and cenſorious Judgement,' which exhibit a picture of man, apparently drawn from the life, and the fruit of accurate obſervation.

'Men judge according to the paſſions and prejudices that prevail in themſelves, rather than according to the virtues or vices that appear in their neighbour's conduct. When one becomes the object of our reſentment, or perhaps interferes with our intereſt, thenceforth all his actions are viewed through a falſe and unfavourable medium, and even his virtues changed into vices. Is he devout? We accuſe him of hypocriſy. Is he otherwiſe? We ſuſpect him of impiety. Is he humble? We call it weakneſs. Is he leſs condeſcending? We accuſe him of pride. Is he diſcreet and reſerved? We call him ſullen and artful. Is he open and ſincere? We repreſent him as ſhallow and imprudent. If others commend him, we call it flattery and ignorance, and are apt to feel ſomething of what Saul felt when he heard the women ſing, Saul hath ſlain his thouſands, and David his ten thouſands. Thus paſſion, prejudice, and intereſt, like thick clouds, hang ſo conſtantly upon our minds, that we are ſeldom in a proper frame of ſpirit to judge impartially of our neighbour's conduct.' Vol. i. P. 358.

In the ſame diſcourſe we were alſo pleaſed with the following uſeful and judicious reflections, on what are commonly called *ſmall ſins.*

'There are ſome tranſgreſſions of the laws of God which are unhappily preſumed not to be very criminal, only becauſe they are too commonly practiſed in the world; and becauſe the laws of men either could not, or do not, make them objects of puniſhment and ignominy. But I ſuſpect it will be found, at that day in which the actions of every man's life ſhall be weighed in the balance of the ſanctuary, and the ſecrets of all hearts brought to light, that thoſe ſuppoſed ſmall ſins have been of all others the moſt dangerous and deſtructive to the human race; and have ruined by far the greateſt part of thoſe whom the divine juſtice ſhall diſmiſs with a ſentence of reprobation. For thoſe ſuppoſed leſs criminal tranſgreſſions of the divine commandments are more frequently ventured upon, being leſs apt to be troubleſome to the conſcience, either by a conviction of guilt, or ſenſe of danger; and of conſequence more generally prevailing among all ranks, and in every period of life, and leſs likely to be repented of, or any ways repaired: whereas crimes

which are considered as heinous in their nature, necessarily alarm the conscience, and always sit uneasy upon it; besides, that temptations to sins of this kind occur very rarely. The unhappiness which they occasion, and fears they raise in the heart, generally prevent repetitions; and if ever the person come to a right mind, and endeavour to reconcile himself to God, sins of this kind are first and most heartily repented of, and for ever forsaken. But sins which the ordinary practice of the world renders familiar, and the erring imaginations of men suppose to be small, are committed without sense of guilt, continued in without apprehension of danger, and are generally the last that are repented of, and forsaken; in so much that many who suppose themselves to be Christians of the first rate, seem to be destitute of all feelings of conscience, and sense of duty in this respect. And the truth is, until a man be truly regenerated in heart, and renewed both in the spirit of his mind, and in his moral conduct, he will rarely have that fear of God, that vigilance to avoid, that determined resolution against transgressions of the divine commandments, which are accounted less dangerous, and are commonly practised in the world, which their guilt and danger deserves. But as a man advances in the spiritual life, he will find such sins most difficult to be avoided, most vexatious by their frequent assaults, most likely to prove fatal to the spirit, and of all others requiring the greatest self-knowledge, self-command, and most unremitting vigilance.' Vol. i. p. 345.

The preacher then proceeds to descant on the evil of rash and censorious judgement, as one of the sins of this numerous class; with respect to which men need to be most frequently and earnestly admonished. Indeed, the whole of the two discourses on this subject cannot be perused without profit, if the reader have the skill to make a judicious application of them.

The concluding sermon in the volume, 'On the Conduct of the Lepers,' contains also many excellent observations, and discovers much knowledge of the deceitful operations of the human heart.

Passing on to the second volume, we find many forcible remarks, well worthy of the perusal of youth, on the evil consequences of early profligacy, in two discourses from Eccles. xi. 9. The preacher, moreover, sets before his hearers, in plain and striking language, the important duty of being always prepared for death. Our readers will probably be pleased with the following additional specimen of Mr. Riddoch's manner, and of his animated and lively address.

'With respect to the necessity of being *always ready*, I need be very brief on this topic, because this congregation has of late received repeated and striking warnings to this effect, and example upon example of the uncertainty of human life. The unsearchable providence of God has preached to us upon this text with a parti-

cular emphasis, and with a pathos that far exceeds the voice of man, —applied the awful instruction to the eye, the ear, and the heart; and in order to make it more generally known and convincing, God has been pleased to remove, by a hasty summons, not one or two of the most obscure, but several who by their rank or business were most universally known to this congregation. I hope in God, and believe, from the ordinary tenor of their lives, that they were prepared for their change; but had it been otherwise, what could they have done for their salvation? What could they have done to make their peace with God and their neighbour? Hardly were they alarmed with sickness, when they were seized by death; hardly was the body disordered, till it was lifeless dust; and scarce had the spirit time for a thought, till it was breathed out into eternity. Consider how it would fare with you, ye thoughtless sons of folly, if ye were thus cut short in your vicious courses, if ye died in a debauch, and were hurried from the scenes of lewdness to the awful tribunal of an angry judge; if your tongue faultered, and your heart fainted to revive no more, amidst a volley of blasphemy, or while you were uttering the lascivious language of Sodom! All your schemes of future repentance would be blasted at once; all your hopes of mercy and forgiveness gone for ever, and your souls hurried out to another existence, without any hopes of acceptance with God, without any excuse to palliate your guilt, and without those dispositions which life was designed to acquire, and heaven intended to reward. Or how should a busy worldling fare, if he received such a hasty summons! No time to make restitution, no time to draw off his heart and affections from the world, no time to undo the effects of his wickedness, or alter, in the smallest degree, the temper of his heart; but he is sent at once to the supreme tribunal, with the guilt of all his fraud and oppression hanging on his conscience, with worldly wicked thoughts in his mind, deceitful projects in his heart, and upon every power and faculty of his soul marks of reprobation, and proofs of rebellion against his God. Let each of us, then, ask ourselves, what hopes we should have, if we were to die with our present dispositions of heart, and conduct of life? Would you choose to depart with such a vicious habit rivetted in your heart, or such a criminal desire burning in your breast? Would you choose to carry with you into another world, that hatred, pride, or envy, which you have so long fostered in this world? Would you die without having repented of, and repaired, in some measure, such an injury you have done to your neighbour's reputation or fortune? I suspect there are few of us but will find, that there is something about us which would need to be changed, before we depart hence, and be no more. And if there be something that needs to be changed, why do we not set about it immediately, since the next moment may render all change impossible, for there is neither work nor device in the grave? In a word, consider, on the one hand, that as the tree falleth, so it must lie, after death repentance is useless, the season of

probation is over, actions must appear as they are, and sentence shall be passed according to the deeds done in the body. Reflect, on the other hand, to how many accidents the life of man is exposed from without, and upon what delicate feeble machinery it depends within; in how many different disguises the king of terrors wages war with the human race; sometimes assaulting them with outward violence, sometimes carrying them off by inward attacks, sometimes gradually sapping their constitutions in a slow consumption, and at others in an instant stopping the springs of life in a fit of apoplexy; sometimes riding in triumph in the terrors of an earthquake, in a flash of lightning, or in the furious rage of an angry sea; sometimes he comes silent and unsuspected in a breath of infected air, lies concealed in a grain of sand, or penetrates to the inmost springs of life with the food we take to satisfy our hunger, and the drink we use to quench our thirst. In a word, so various are his disguises, so invisible are his approaches, so numerous are his instruments of destruction, so secret are his snares, that when we walk abroad, we are not sure but he may seize us at the next step; when we retire to our closets, and shut the door behind us, even there we may be forced to say, Hast thou found me, O mine enemy? When we sit down to table with our friends, he may appear among us, like Satan among the sons of God; when we retire to our rest, our bed may conceal him, and in the silent midnight hour, he may present the awful summons to the soul, "The hour is come; prepare to appear before God." Vol. ii. p. 12.

We were also pleased with the sermon in this volume which was preached upon Ash-Wednesday, entitled, 'Of publicly denouncing Curses upon Sinners.' Mr. Riddoch gives a good explanation of the nature and design of that ancient ecclesiastical holiday; whilst he applies the subject in a plain, faithful, and affectionate warning to various classes of hearers.

There are likewise in this volume two excellent sermons upon morning and evening devotion, from which we forbear to make any extracts, rather wishing to refer the whole of them to the reader's serious perusal.

In volume the third we find some very just and seasonable remarks on 'that irresolution of sentiment and judgement, which, though it adheres to the belief of the Gospel in general, yet is continually hesitating between modes of worship, systems of doctrine, and sets of speculative notions.'

'There are some who are never settled in their religious opinions, and, were it in their power, would never let any thing be settled in religion. Their ears are itching, their minds unstable, their judgment weak, and every thing that seems new seizes them, like an infection. They are ever shifting from one set of notions and principles to another, sometimes to the better, and sometimes to the worse, but never long to their own satisfaction; ever learning, but never able to come to the knowledge of the truth.

'Were the effects of this ficklenefs nothing more than a few harmlefs abfurdities in opinion, men might be left to grow wife by experience; but they are fo perplexed about what they fhall believe, that they think too little of what they ought to do; fo much employed about reforming religion, that they forget that reformation, which religion itfelf was defigned to produce, I mean, to turn pride into humility, worldly mindednefs into charity, licentioufnefs and luxury into fobriety, and felf-denial, and impatience and difcontent, into patience and refignation.—In truth, it fares with them, with regard to religion, as we fee it does with men in common life, when they are unfteady, always fhifting from project to project, and always changing from bufinefs to bufinefs, we feldom find that they better their fortune; and juft fo, when men are always fhifting principles, and altering their opinions, we rarely fee that they improve much in folid goodnefs, or excel in the real graces and virtues of the Chriftian profeffion. For principles muft fettle in the mind, before they can have a real influence on the conduct. A foul always wavering in fentiment can never be fteady in conduct; and he who is not rooted and grounded in his faith, will never refolutely profecute any fcheme of fanctifying his temper, and improving in practical virtues.' Vol. iii. P. 60.

We could give a variety of other quotations which would ferve to reprefent the preacher in a very favourable point of view; but we think the fpecimens already offered fufficient to convey to our readers a full knowledge of his general merit.

We were leaft pleafed with the fermon entitled, 'The Preparation neceffary previous to Whit-Sunday,' preached from Acts ii. 38, 39; as, were it neceffary, we think we could prove that the preacher has, in various refpects, miftaken the meaning of that paffage.

We could not help, likewife, noticing fome Scotticifms which now and then appear, fuch as the fubftitution of *would* for *fhould*, &c.

But without being faftidious, we ftill affirm that we have derived confiderable fatisfaction from the perufal of thefe difcourfes. We think in a variety of refpects they have confiderable merit, and whilft they ferve to place the author of them in a refpectable point of view as a divine, they may be profitably perufed by the public, and become a ufeful addition to the library of the ftudent.

Conſiderations on Milton's early Reading, and the Prima Stamina of his Paradiſe Loſt; together with Extracts from a Poet of the Sixteenth Century. In a Letter to William Falconer, M.D. from Charles Dunſter, M. A. 8vo. [illegible] *Boards.* Evans. 1800.

THE early reading of illuſtrious authors is certainly a ſubject of intereſting and uſeful inquiry. When we are enabled to trace the origin of ideas, we poſſeſs a fortunate key to the developement of the human mind. And in the detection of thoughts and phraſes borrowed by men of genius from writers who have preceded them, much inſtruction may be derived; not only from obſervation of what they ſelect as worthy of imitation, but alſo of what they reject as faulty or irrelevant to their purpoſe. That Milton has copiouſly availed himſelf of the ſtores of ancient literature has been fully demonſtrated by the commentators on his immortal works; but the obligations which he owes to his Engliſh predeceſſors have not been ſo generally or ſo clearly aſcertained. The object of the little volume now under our conſideration is to prove, as far as ſuch a ſubject admits of proof, that Milton became at a very early period of his life acquainted with Joſhua Sylveſter's tranſlation of the works of Du Bartas, and that the peruſal of Du Bartas's Divine Weeks 'led to Milton's great poem, not only by awakening his paſſion for ſacred poeſy, but by abſolutely furniſhing what Dr. Johnſon in his preface to Lauder's pamphlet terms the *prima ſtamina* of Paradiſe Loſt.'

In order to demonſtrate that Milton was acquainted with Sylveſter's tranſlation of Du Bartas, Mr. Dunſter in the firſt place aſſerts what may be denominated the antecedent probability of ſuch an event. From his twelfth year Milton was moſt paſſionately fond of reading. The quarto edition of Du Bartas was publiſhed in 1613, and the folio edition in 1621, at which latter epoch Milton was juſt arrived at the age of thirteen. That Sylveſter's verſion of Du Bartas's work was received with great favour by the public, is evinced by the fact that it paſſed through two quarto and two folio editions in the courſe of thirty years; and it may naturally be ſuppoſed that a poem thus popular would attract the eager attention of an inquiſitive youth. In confirmation of this ſuppoſition, Mr. Dunſter obſerves that Sylveſter's Du Bartas was printed by Humphrey Lownes, who, in the year 1613, lived on Bread-ſtreet-hill, in the vicinity of Milton's father, then reſident in Bread-ſtreet. Sylveſter himſelf was certainly, and his printer moſt probably, infected by the puritanic principles by which Milton's family were diſtinguiſhed, and it is not perhaps an unreaſonable conjecture that neighbours of the ſame religious faith (and Mr. Dunſter might have added, *à fortiori*, of a faith differing from that of the eſtabliſhment) would be in ſome degree con-

nected by habits of friendly intercourse. This intercourse would almost infallibly throw into the hands of the juvenile student the *opus palmarium* of the translator and of the printer.

This is a concise view of the arguments, *à priori*, by which Mr. Dunster endeavours to establish the truth of his position that Milton was acquainted with the works of Du Bartas as translated by Sylvester.

In proof that his conjecture is supported by fact, Mr. Dunster quotes from the works of Du Bartas, terms, phrases, and thoughts, which he apprehends Milton has condescended to transplant into his garden of ever-blooming sweets. Some of his instances appear to us irrelevant, several doubtful, but many are decisive. In the first of these classes we must number the instance which occurs, p. 19, where Mr. Dunster, surely without due consideration, imagines that when Milton characterises the water of the Jordan as *Jordan's clear stream*, he borrows his epithet from these lines of Sylvester:

'*Clear Jordan's* self, in his dry osier bed,
Blushing for shame, was fain to hide his head.'

In the second order we may place the following:

'*Mil.* Why turned Jordan towards his crystal fountains?
'*Syl.* And tow'rd the crystal of his double source,
Compelled Jordan to retreat his course.'

The following instances appear to us decisive:

'But full soon they did devour
The tawny king with all his power.]

'Thus exactly, and with the same fine effect, Sylvester:

'But contrary the Red Sea did devour
The barb'rous tyrant with his mighty power.' P. 31.

'———thou goddess fair and free,]

'In Sylvester's Du Bartas, it is said, God created the angels,

'———immortal, innocent,
Good, fair and free;———

'Haste thee, nymph, and bring with thee
Jest and youthful Jollity;
Quips, and cranks, and wanton wiles,
Nods and becks and wreathed smiles,
Such as hang on Hebe's cheek, &c. &c.]

'Pray just cast your eye on Du Bartas's groupe of attendants on the "laughter loving" goddess;

'Fair dainty Venus,———
Whom wanton dalliance, dancing, and delight,
Smiles, witty wiles, youth, love, and beauty bright,
With soft blind Cupids ever more consort.

' Then to come, in spite of sorrow,
And at my window bid good morrow.]

' Bishop Newton takes occasion, from this passage, to admit, with Dryden, that "rhyme was not Milton's talent." "Several things," he observes, "are said by Milton, which would not have been said, but for the sake of the rhyme;" and he particularly refers to the "in spite of sorrow," in this place; which he intimates to be what we used to call at school a botch, a mere expletive, foisted in *pro carminis usu.* You and I, (who have a higher opinion of Milton's talent for rhyme) should not, I believe, easily accede to this accusation against him.—I had once supposed it intended strongly to characterise the enlivening effect of the lark's matin song, so as to dispel at once any sorrows of the preceding night; and possibly with a recollection of the psalmist's, "Sorrow may endure for a night: but joy cometh in the morning." Psalm xxx. 5.—But I think you will agree with me, that we must, in this instance, look only to Sylvester's Du Bartas: where the poet is describing the happiness of him who leads a country life;

' The chearful birds, chirping him sweet good morrow,
With Nature's music do beguile his sorrow.

' While the cock, &c.
Stoutly struts his dames before.]

' Ev'n as a peacock———
To woo his mistress, strutting stately by her, &c. &c.

' Meadows trim with daisies pied.]

' Trim is no unfrequent epithet for meadows in Sylvester:

' ——— the flowers that paint the fields so trim.

' The eternal verdure, and the trim prospect
Of plenteous pastures,———

' Pied, for variegated, is also Sylvestrian.—Most readers, I suspect, have applied pied to the daisies themselves; and I confess that I attributed Milton's "pied daisies" to Shakspeare's

' —— daisies pied and violets blue,

in the song, at the end of As You Like It. But we may as well understand his meadows to have been variegated with daisies; as are those in Sylvester's Du Bartas:

' In May the meads are not so pied with flowers.

' Where, in his description of Eden, we have the same idea;

' With thousand dies he motleys all the meads.

' Pied is there also applied to flowers themselves;

' ———each bed and border
Is, like pied posies, diverse dies and order.

' ———— their sav'ry dinner—
Of herbs and other country messes,
Which the neat-handed Phyllis dresses.]

' Sylvester describes the fruits of the garden of Eden, yielding

' More wholesome food than all the messes,
That now taste-curious wanton dresses.

' ———— the jocund rebecks sound,]

' The rebeck, as Mr. Warton has noticed in the second edition of his Milton, is mentioned by Sylvester as an instrument with strings of catgut;

' But wiery cymbals, rebecks' sinews twin'd,
Sweet virginals, and cornet's curled wind.

' To many a youth, and many a maid,
Dancing, &c.]

' I think I have seen it somewhere observed, that this line much expresses the bounding of a dance. I will beg you to compare the festive dance of Solomon's courtiers, masked as heathen deities, i the revels celebrating his nuptials;

' Here many a Phœbus, and here many a muse,—
Here many a Juno, many a Pallas here,
Here many a Venus, and Diana clear,
Here many a horned satyr, many a Pan,
Here wood-nymphs, flood-nymphs, many a fairy fawn,
With lusty frisks and lively bounds, &c. &c.' p. 60.

' I shall conclude the present speculation (which I hope you will not think totally unfounded,) by endeavouring to shew you from the beauty and sublimity of many passages in Sylvester's Translation of Du Bartas's Weeks, that it is, in fact, a work very likely to have engrossed no small share of Milton's attention, and, in many places, no common degree of his young poetic admiration. Here I shall lay before you passages broken, as well as connected; compound epithets of effect; elevated, or apparently highly-original phrases;—in short, whatever I felt, or fancied, was likely, in any shape, to have struck either the ear, or the imagination, of the young poetical reader.' p. 120.

The extracts from Du Bartas are very copious, extending from p. 121 to p. 214 inclusive.

That Milton had attentively read the works of Du Bartas Mr. Dunster has satisfactorily proved. That Du Bartas's weeks and days are the *prima stamina* of Paradise Lost is not, in our opinion, rendered probable. But it is nevertheless certain that Mr. Dunster has opened a field which future com-

mentators on Milton will do well to examine with minute attention *, and we have to return him our thanks for the entertainment and inftruction we have derived from the perufal of his work, which is compofed in the genuine fpirit of criticifm.

Latin Profody made eafy, or Rules and Authorities for the Quantity of final Syllables in general, and of the Increments of Nouns and Verbs; interfperfed with occafional Obfervations and Conjectures on the Pronunciation of the ancient Greeks and Romans; to which are added Directions for fcanning and compofing different Kinds of Verfe, followed by Analytic Remarks on the harmonious Structure of the Hexameter, together with Synoptic Tables of Quantity for every Declenfion and Conjugation. By J. Carey. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinfons.

THE fubject of profody we deem of effential importance to every ftudent who is defirous of reading the claffics of antiquity with genuine relifh, and of cultivating this branch of learning with critical difcernment. In the generality of our private fchools, in very many of our public, and almoft univerfally, we believe, through the northern part of our ifland, this branch of elementary difcipline is moft lamentably neglected, to the fcandal and difgrace of the mafters who prefide over thefe feminaries, and who may be juftly regarded as fraudulent empirics in their art, and robbers of the public weal; for we turn with difguft from a boy of eager appetite for learning, who receives no more delight from the poetry of Virgil in its native arrangement, than from the fame poetry difmembered and mangled in the *marginal order* of a vulgar edition, and this through the fupinenefs or ignorance of his inftructor. We find no difficulty, therefore, in pronouncing an accurate and comprehenfive knowledge of profodaic rules abfolutely neceffary to every votary of the Greek and Roman mufes.

The general defect of the treatifes on this fubject, which have fallen under our infpection, is a technical inelegance and a jejune infipidity, which weary and dishearten the ftudent, who requires a mixture of pleafant inftruction to qualify the uninterefting tedioufnefs of long and recondite precepts; and we are happy in feeling ourfelves able to recommend, very heartily and very confcientioufly, Mr. Carey's publication, as learned, and intelligible at the fame time to every fcholar; as minute, but not frivolous; as comprehenfive, but not comparatively

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* Warton and Todd have quoted Sylvefter's tranflation of Du Bartas, but they do not feem to have been much acquainted with it.

burdensome; as adapted to the capacity and information of the boy, and yet conveying some lessons of instruction, to which the ripest proficients in the Latin language may profitably listen.

From a publication of this kind, so mixed and multifarious in its nature, it is not possible to give such quotations as shall furnish an adequate representation of the whole: we shall produce, however, a few casual passages, by which our readers will be enabled to form a tolerably adequate opinion of Mr. Carey's abilities in this province, and the rectitude of our judgement in so liberal a commendation of his work.

'In some parts of these sheets I may be thought to have unprofitably wasted much time and paper on objects of very trifling importance—in bestowing, for instance, two pages on the question whether *fumat* was intended for the present or the past tense in Æneid ii, 3—and extending to still greater length the inquiry whether Virgil ever wrote "Obstupui, steterUntque comæ." If, on these and some other occasions, the reader think me unnecessarily diffuse, my apology is this—When an obscure individual like me dares to dissent from a generally received opinion, or from the opinion of some man of established reputation—however un-important the point on which he happens to differ—he lays himself open to all the severity of censure if he venture to express his dissent un-accompanied by the allegation of his reasons. Hence it becomes his duty to state them in a full and explicit manner: and the public have a right to expect that mark of deference on his part.

'As to the long-contested question of the subjunctive *-RIMUS* and *-RITIS*, I am less apprehensive of being condemned for the pains I have taken in my endeavour to bring it to a final decision, whether my opinion be adopted or not.—But some of my readers—who happen not to recollect the scrupulous attention paid by Cicero to poetic feet and measures, the serious earnestness with which he discusses them in his didactic compositions, and the fond predilection he entertained for the concluding ditrochee which was so grateful to Roman ears—may be tempted to smile when I declare my firm persuasion that he could not have pronounced the *-RI-* of the preter-perfect otherwise than long at the close of the following sentences—"Quanti me semper fēcērītis," Orat. for Milo, sect. 36, and "Quamquam, quid facturi fueritis, non dubitem, quum videam quid fēcērītis," for Ligarius, sect. 8.

'However, when those readers consider the general burst of applause excited by the harmonious cadence alone of the final ditrochee in "Patris dictum sapiens temeritas filii cōmprōbāvit," as we learn from Cicero, in his Orator, sect. 214—when they reflect, that, in his laboured harangue for Milo, I find, on a hasty glance over the pages, at least a hundred and seventeen periods or members of periods concluding with the ditrochee, but not a single period which

terminates with a pæon of one long and three short syllables—and when they take into the account the strong emphasis laid on *feceritis* in at least the second of the above quotations—they may perhaps allow that my persuasion is not groundless, particularly when supported by the authority of Probus, quoted in page 54.' P. iv.

'A vowel is long by position, when it immediately precedes two consonants, or one double consonant (X or Z), or the letter I (or J) followed by a vowel in the same word, as Tērra, Arāxes, Gāza, Mājor, Trōja, Ajāx.

' Sub juga jam Seres, jam *bārbarus* isset Arāxes. (Lucan.
Sicelides Musæ, paullo *mājora* canamus. (Virgil.
Sacra suosque tibi commendat *Trōja* penates. (Virgil.

' The reason why the J makes the preceding vowel long, is that it is itself a vowel, not a consonant, and unites with the preceding vowel to compose a diphthong, thus, Mai-or, Troi-a, Ai-ax, in the same manner as Maia, Maius, Caius, Baiæ, Aiunt.' P. 9.

In our opinion all words, in which the J is so situated, would be pronounced to great advantage, as abundantly more melodious, after the Greek enunciation, *maiora* and *Troia*, in preference to *majora* and *Troja*.

' But Greek vocatives in A, from nominatives in TES (changed to TA in some branches of the Doric dialect), are short, as Polydectă, Orestă, Æetă, Thyestă, &c. (See Maittaire, and Clarke, on the nominative Ἱππότα for Ἱππότης, Iliad A, 175.)' P. 61.

This change of TES into TA, or more properly this singular use of the terminative TA in the nominative instead of TES, is not assignable to the *Doric* dialect, but rather to the *Æolian.* Where the Greek η is changed into α by the Dorians, its quantity is preserved under the alteration, and continues long, whilst the final α in ἱππότα, μετίετα, and others of this description, is invariably short.

' The anapæstic verse consists of four feet, which, in the pure anapæstic, are all anapæsts, as

....Phărĕtræ-|-quĕ grăvēs | dătĕ sæ-|-vă fĕrō.... (Seneca.

' But the pure anapæstic rarely occurs: we frequently see the dactyl and spondee admitted; and sometimes the anapæstic verse does not contain a single anapæst.

Gĕnŭs, ō | pŭĕrī | nātī | pĕr ĭter. (Seneca.
Vērbĕră | tērgō | cædānt | hūmĕros. (Seneca.
Tērtĭă | mīsĭt | būccĭnă | sīgnum. (Seneca.

' According to Alvarez's rule, the second or fourth foot never is a dactyl. If indeed we take for our criterion the anapæstics in Seneca's tragedies, the observation is true: but, if we look to the Greek tragedians, we find that they did not thus limit the admission of the dactyl, as appears from Æschylus—

Ιτε μαν | ΑΣΤΥΑ-|-νακτας | μακαρας.. (Suppl. 1025.
Της πολυ-|-τεκνου | Τηθυος | ΕΚΓΟΝΑ. (Prom. Vinct. 137.

'Nor were the dactyl and ſpondee the only feet ſubſtituted for the anapæſt. The pyrrichius, the trochee, the tribrachys, were likewiſe admitted, as in the following examples from Æſchylus and Seneca.

Φιλος εσ-|-τι βεβαι-|-ότε-|-ρος σοι. (Prom. Vinct. 127.
Clără Tŏ-|-*nāntĕ* | cēntūm | pŏpŭli.. (Herc. Œt. 1875.
Mĕgără | pārvūm | cŏmĭtā |-tă grĕgem. (Herc. F. 203.'

P. 155.

In the former part of this quotation, method and propriety required an exemplification of a *ſpondaic* anapæſt by the production of ſuch a verſe; and, in the latter part, the verſe from Æſchylus is the 127th in number in no edition, and the 297th in Pauw's republication of Stanley. This typographical error, however, is of trivial importance in compariſon with the author's own miſtake, who does not ſeem to apprehend the diſtinction between an *anapæſtic baſis* and the common *anapæſtic verſe.* The baſis uniformly concludes a ſyſtem of anapæſts, and frequently a period in the ſyſtem; and is univerſally *two times*, one long ſyllable or two ſhort ſyllables, of leſs length than the other, but ſo modified as to form, we believe, univerſally the concluſion of an hexameter.

Our author then refers us to p. 139 for ſome further remarks on the anapæſt; in which alſo he is inaccurate. No final ſyllable in an anapæſtic verſe of the Greek tragedians is *common*, in the grammatical ſenſe of that term, except the laſt ſyllable of the baſis; which, like the ſame ſyllable in hexameters, or pentameters, may be either long or ſhort by nature: but in the anapæſtic ſeries, if a ſhort ſyllable terminate an anapæſtic verſe, this either happens in the caſe of a word which admits the paragogic ν, or that ſyllable is lengthened by the introductory conſonants of the following verſe; or again, no ſyllable of an anapæſtic verſe can be ſhort at the end, though naturally ſhort, if ſucceeded in the next verſe by a word whoſe initial letters would lengthen that ſyllable in a lineal arrangement. This peculiarity was pointed out by Dr. Bentley in his diſputations on Phalaris, and is technically denominated the *ſynaphia* of the anapæſtic ſeries.

Some other inaccuracies may be found in this volume, which will not eſcape the learned author on a reviſal of his work; and, as another edition, we ſhould think, will ſoon be demanded by the public, we will ſuggeſt a few hints, by which, in our judgement, that edition may be conſiderably improved.

As all poſſible brevity, conſiſtent with perſpicuity, is of high moment in ſuch a publication, both on account of the expence,

which is always prejudicial to the reception of a ſchool-book, and the impolicy of burdening the ſcholar's memory or fatiguing his attention by the accumulation of a ſingle line not abſolutely neceſſary; we ſhould recommend the ſhortening of ſome occaſional digreſſions, and the entire ſuppreſſion of others. In our opinion, Alvarez's rules ſhould be totally baniſhed not only in their collective ſtate, as exhibited in the introduction, but in their detailed form, as conſtituting the texts and diviſions of our author's remarks and illuſtrations throughout the volume. Such ſyſtems, however ingenious in themſelves, contain of neceſſity ſo much nonſenſical and crabbed verſe as to become very irkſome to the learner, at a time of life when their utility is but imperfectly apprehended; and, whatever may be the practice in a neighbouring iſland, no judicious maſter, we think, will chooſe to adopt them here. We ſhould prefer Mr. Carey's own ſtatement of his rules, in the ſame order if he pleaſe, but in his own Engliſh. The ſynopſis alſo, which occupies the *thirteen* laſt pages of the book, we ſhould gladly find omitted. We will venture likewiſe to pronounce decidedly againſt ſuch a multitude of examples in plain caſes; by which the book is, on the whole amount, very unneceſſarily ſwollen. Take the following ſpecimen, as an illuſtration of our remarks.

'The plural increments I and U are ſhort, as Quĭbus, Trĭbus, Montĭbus, Lacŭbus, Verŭbus:—except Būbus, which has the penultima long, for the reaſon alleged in page 34.

'Vivite felices, quĭbus eſt fortuna peracta... (Virgil.
Necte trĭbus nodis ternos, Amarylli, colores. (Virgil.
Montĭbus in noſtris ſolus tibi certet Amyntas. (Virgil.
Præmia de lacŭbus proxima muſta tuis. (Ovid.
Pars in fruſta ſecant, verŭbusque trementia figunt. (Virgil.
Non profecturis litora būbus aras. (Ovid.'

P. 45.

Half of theſe inſtances, in our opinion, would have been ſufficient: and very numerous curtailments of a ſimilar kind may be allowed without impairing the intrinſic value of this truly reſpectable and edifying performance.

The Principles of Algebra. By William Frend. 8vo. 5s. *Boards.* Robinsons.

The Principles of Algebra: or the true Theory of Equations established on Mathematical Demonstration. Part the Second. By William Frend. 8vo. 3s. *Boards.* Robinsons.

THE first of these two volumes we have already briefly noticed in our XXIId Vol. N. A. p. 345. The publication of the second seems to have completed the author's plan, and we shall therefore be more full in our investigation of it.

The science of algebra is as pleasant to the speculative recluse as it is to the practical geometrician, and we have often been surprised at its not being more widely cultivated in the present studious and enlightened age; for, excepting the universities themselves, there are few public schools, even among those of very considerable reputation, where it is ever introduced as a branch of learning at all; and even where it is so admitted, from want of sufficient knowledge or method in the teacher, the pupil seldom advances beyond the portico of this truly elegant and magnificent structure, and too generally retreats disgusted with the labour it has already cost him, and incapable of discerning the connection of part with part, or the general use and benefit of the entire system.

Much of this evil, we are ready to believe, results from a want of a proper elementary treatise or introduction to this important science, which has often been denominated abstruse, but which is no otherwise so than in consequence of such a deficiency. In reality, from the quaint dialogue introduction of Fenning to the voluminous and operose quartos of Saunderson, we are acquainted with no one book of rudiments, in our own language, which we could readily recommend to students as comprising the very necessary qualifications of conciseness and perspicuity, or conveying to them the principles of algebraic algorithm. We are happy, therefore, to meet with the publication before us, which, notwithstanding a variety of innovations of which we cannot altogether approve, is composed with a far more lucid order and simplicity than any elementary book we are at present acquainted with; and as such we feel no hesitation in recommending it to our private tutors engaged in domestic education, as well as to the public academies in which algebra forms a part of the learning disseminated.

'If upon this suggestion,' says the author, 'any master of a school should adopt the mode proposed, I should be much obliged to him to acquaint me with the result of his experience; and indeed if the masters, ushers, or tutors of schools, academies, or colleges, should, on examination, find this work adapted to their use, I should esteem it a favour to have any faults in it pointed out to me by them, and to receive their hints for future improvement.

'To prepare a boy for the reading of this book, we cannot begin too early; and the preparation is simple. As soon as he begins to write figures, the algebraical marks should be introduced into his copies. Thus his first copy might be in addition, after a time in subtraction, soon after in multiplication, then in division.

$$3 + 4 = 7$$
$$8 - 5 = 3$$
$$9 \times 9 = 81$$
$$24 \div 8 = 3$$

'On showing the copy-book, the boy should always read his copy to the master. Thus three and four equal seven; from eight take five, the remainder equals three; nine into 9 equals eighty-one; twenty-four divided by eight equals three. By degrees a letter may be placed in his copies. Thus $a = 6$. $\therefore 5a = 30$; and thus with very little trouble a boy will by mere reading become not only as well acquainted with the marks $+ - \times \div < = > \therefore$ as with the figures 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9, but understand the principles laid down for the solution of simple equations. During this time, the boy, it is presumed, is learning the first rules in arithmetic; and as soon as he can add, subtract, multiply, and divide whole numbers, and can just do a sum in the rule of three, I recommend that he should enter upon the principles of algebra.

'Allowing this mode to be good, some one may perhaps ask me, why I should think of adding to the number of books already written upon this subject, and not content myself with referring to the authors in common use? I am prepared to answer the question. Half a dozen years experience, as tutor of a college in the university of Cambridge, taught me the difficulties under which young men labour in endeavouring to learn algebra by the common mode. Some throw away their books before they can do a simple equation; others, with more courage, get through equations of the second order, but are afraid to venture on the second part of Maclaurin's Algebra; others wade through a few chapters, but are frightened, and with good reason, at Cardan's Rule; the bold ones rush forward through thick and thin, till after having made, as they think, some curious discoveries on the limits of negative roots, they finish their course in despair, in endeavouring to find the number of impossible roots in an equation of n dimensions.' Part i. p. vii.

We have already observed that there are a variety of innovations in the work before us, for which we see little or no reason, and consequently of which we cannot approve. We here particularly allude to the violent expulsion, without a due and legal trial by jury (our author is a politician—he alludes to the politics of the present day even in this isolated treatise upon algebra—and he will forgive us, therefore, if we compare his conduct in the instance before us to that which expatriated many of the legislators of France to Cayenne during a late revolution)—we say without a sufficient trial by jury of

those old-eſtabliſhed and very valuable members of the *inſtitution* before us, the terms negative quantities, ſquare, cube, biquadrate, ſurſolid, &c.

'The firſt error in teaching the principles of algebra is obvious on peruſing a few pages only in the firſt of Maclaurin's Algebra. Numbers are there divided into two ſorts, poſitive and negative; and an attempt is made to explain the nature of negative numbers, by alluſions to book-debts and other arts. Now, when a perſon cannot explain the principles of a ſcience without reference to metaphor, the probability is, that he has never thought accurately upon the ſubject. A number may be greater or leſs than another number; it may be added to, taken from, multiplied into, and divided by another number, but in other reſpects it is very untractable: though the whole world ſhould be deſtroyed, one will be one, and three will be three; and no art whatever can change their nature. You may put a mark before one, which it will obey: it ſubmits to be taken away from another number greater than itſelf, but to attempt to take it away from a number leſs than itſelf is ridiculous. Yet this is attempted by algebraiſts, who talk of a number leſs than nothing, of multiplying a negative number into a negative number and thus producing a poſitive number, of a number being imaginary. Hence they talk of two roots to every equation of the ſecond order, and the learner is to try which will ſucceed in a given equation: they talk of ſolving an equation, which requires two impoſſible roots to make it ſolvible: they can find out ſome impoſſible numbers, which, being multiplied together, produce unity. This is all jargon, at which common ſenſe recoils; but, from its having been once adopted, like many other figments, it finds the moſt ſtrenuous ſupporters among thoſe who love to take things upon truſt, and hate the labour of a ſerious thought.' Part i. p. x.

'Some care has been taken in endeavouring to adapt the language for the perſons to whoſe uſe this book is dedicated, that is, to Engliſh boys and girls. Hence the terms quadratic, cubic, biquadratic, and the like, as applied to equations, are exploded; and the words ſquare, cube, ſolid, ſurſolid, as applied to numbers, are for the ſame reaſon rejected. But habit will ſometimes prevail over our beſt deſigns. Thus, from the long uſe of the word ſquare, it eſcaped my correcting hand in page 105, line 12, where, for ſquare, the words "ſecond power" ſhould be inſerted. Square and cube are modes of continued quantity, and cannot be applied to numbers: the abſurdity is ſeen in the uſe of the word ſurſolid; for, if there could be ſuch a thing as a ſolid number, there might be a ſurſolid number, and a thing might be more than ſolid, which is abſurd. People err much in ſuppoſing that a word is of little conſequence, if it is explained. If that word has a very different meaning in other reſpects, the learner will confound frequently the different meanings, and paſs through life without having a clear idea

upon the ſubject. In educating children, we ſhould take care not to uſe a word above their comprehenſion, nor, by our authority, to impreſs a poſition on their minds which is not true. If we teach them little, we ſhould teach them that little well: but we are doing them a real injury, when we fill their heads with a jumble of words, or with falſe and incoherent notions.' Part i. P. xii.

The real fact is, that, in the education of children, every ſyllable taught them is at firſt far beyond their comprehenſion. The very commencement of ſpelling is ſufficient to evince this, or even the very commencement of the alphabet, without having recourſe to any thing beyond. Throughout the whole period of education, the moſt we can hope to do is to infuſe *good principles*, whether theſe refer to *ſcience* or *morality*; and to leave their operation, and too generally the knowledge of their *motives*, to the events of future life; which, at the ſame time that they demonſtrate the ſoundneſs of thoſe principles themſelves, will evince the propriety of our ſilence with reſpect to their explanation. All that is neceſſary in the preſent period is to make our pupils thoroughly underſtand the meaning of the terms we employ;—an error will not then readily enſue.

'If there could be ſuch a thing as a ſolid number, there might be a ſurſolid number, and a thing might be more than ſolid, which is abſurd. People err much in ſuppoſing that a word is of little conſequence, if it is explained.' Part i. P. xii.

We are ready to confeſs that we think with the people who thus err. Primarily and abſtractedly conſidered there are many abſurdities in the terms of a variety of ſciences—but an intelligible explanation removes the abſurdity at once, and the whole is perſpicuous and clear. Mr. Frend would not with Newton and Clairant employ the terms negative numbers, ſurſolid, and biquadrate-ſquare; but we apprehend he would ſtill with both *meaſure* certain *parts* of ſpace by determining the diſtance from planet to planet:—yet ſpace is nevertheleſs *immeaſurable*, and conſiſts of *no parts* whatſoever. In like manner, metaphyſicians have been accuſtomed to *divide* eternity into diſtinct portions, and, with reſpect to the exiſtence of creation, to regard it as an eternitas à parte ante, and an eternitas à parte poſt. Such a regulation has its advantage, and, when the terms are duly explained, no confuſion can enſue; but will any one undertake to aſſert that eternity, ſtrictly and abſtractedly conſidered, can be divided in any manner, or conſiſt of *diſtinct portions?* When Fahrenheit conſtructed the ſcale of his thermometer in 1709, he fixed the greateſt degree of cold he was then acquainted with, which was that of the ſevereſt ſeaſon in Iceland, at an 0, or, as it is commonly called nothing; dividing it into ſix hundred degrees between this and its utmoſt elevation, to indicate the heat of boiling quickſilver. But we know of frigidities very many degrees indeed below the

first index of Fahrenheit, and we now universally denominate them, wherever they exist, so many degrees *below nothing.* In strict application of language, this term, perhaps, may not be altogether correct, and our author may regard it, 'like a thing that is more than solid,' as 'absurd.' But in reality there is no absurdity whatever: for every one who employs the term understands its meaning perfectly. And we much question whether any new treatise on pneumatics, like Mr. Frend's on algebra, that should attempt to vary the general graduation, would add any thing of great moment to the *general scale of knowledge.* It might be more hypercritically correct, but it would not be better understood; and correctness is only of advantage as it adds to human understanding. But there is one alteration we may mention that has not even the advantage of increased precision to support it, and that is the change of the term *co-efficient* to *co-part.* On what account Mr. Frend has quarrelled with this former term we know not; nor can we conceive of any one boast in favour of the latter, excepting that of mere novelty. As we have before observed, this elementary treatise is, nevertheless, a very ingenious and useful work, its progress is easy, and its problems are to the purpose. In the solution of equations of the third order we were prepared to point out an obvious error in p. 213; but on perusing the preface to the second part of these algebraic principles, p. xiv. we find we are anticipated by the author himself, who has detected the mistake, and already, it should seem, corrected it by a notice to the public through the medium of a respectable journal.

The second part of the work before us is devoted to the doctrine of equations. They are divided into four classes, according to the number of their unknown terms: $x^{m+n} - ax^n = k$ being an equation of the second; and $x^m - ax^n + bx^r = k$ of the third class. From the expulsion of negative quantities, which are denominated impossibilities, from the dignity of roots, the author advances one general rule, which applies to equations of every order; to wit, that none in any class can have more roots than it has unknown terms. The first class of equations are solved by extraction, by logarithms, by *approach,* usually denominated, and with equal pertinency, by *approximation*; by an improved approach, an elegant and ingenious operation; by a general expression, and by the mode of dividers. This first class occupies the principal part of the author's inquiry. In the forms of each class, however, the number of roots depends partly upon the co-efficients of the unknown terms, and partly upon the changes of the marks of addition or subtraction. In equations, whose unknown terms are ranged according to the order of their powers, there can be only one root, if there be

only one or no change of the marks; and in equations not ranged according to the order of their powers, there will be only one root, if there be a certain relation between the known term of the co-efficients of the unknown terms.

As a specimen of the perspicuity and accuracy of Mr. Frend's method, we shall select from chap. iv, 'on Equations of the Third Class,' his 'new method of discovering the number of roots in a mode capable of having three roots.' The equation is $x^3 - a x^2 + b x = k$.

'x^3 may be taken, first less, then greater than $a x^2$.

'If x is taken less than a, then the unknown side is less than $b x$; and if x is made equal to a, then the unknown side is equal to $b x$. Consequently, if $b a$ is equal to or less than k, no number less than a can make the unknown side equal to k; and since the unknown side always increases, from the time that x is equal to a, by adding to x, the equation can have only one root. Hence if b is equal to or less than $\frac{k}{a}$ the equation has only one root.

When x is taken less than a.

$$a x^2 - x^3 = b x - k.$$

When x is taken greater than a.

$$x^3 - a x^2 = k - b x.$$

'In the first case, namely, when $a x^2 - x^3$ is equal to $b x - k$, let $b x - k = m x$, m being a variable number and

$$a x^2 - x^3 = m x$$

$$\text{or } a x - x^2 = m.$$

'Now the side $a x - x^2$ first increases and then decreases; but m being equal to $b - \frac{k}{x}$ must as x increases always increase. $a x - x^2$ is greatest when $x = \frac{a}{2}$. Consequently, if in this case $a x - x^2$ is less than m, no number greater than $\frac{a}{2}$ can be substituted for x in this equation, and this equation admits only of one root. Hence the given equation $x^3 - a x^2 + b x = k$ cannot have more than two roots if $\frac{a^2}{4}$ is less than m. If $\frac{a^2}{4}$ is greater than m some number less than $\frac{a}{2}$ will make $a x - x^2$ equal to m, and then if the increase of $a x - x^2$ in that case is greater than m, some other greater number, but less than a, will make $a x - x^2$ equal again to m; and thus the equation $a x - x^2 = m$ will have two roots, and consequently the given equation $x^3 - a x^2 + b x = k$ will have three roots. Now m begins to exist at a certain value of x, namely, when $x = \frac{k}{b}$ and its increase is greatest at first, but grows

continually leſs and leſs. Alſo the increaſe of $a x - x^2$ is greateſt at firſt and conſtantly diminiſhes. Hence, m may become equal to $a x - x^2$ before x is equal to $\frac{a}{2}$, and then its increaſe may be leſs than that of $a x - x^2$, conſequently the equation will have two roots. But if the increaſe of m is greater than that of $a x - x^2$, when m firſt becomes equal to $a x - x^2$, and is alſo greater when $x = \frac{a}{2}$, then there cannot be another root to the equation $a x - x^2 = m$, and conſequently the given equation will have only two roots.' Part ii. P. 84.

Some eaſy and appoſite inſtances are here introduced, but theſe we muſt omit. The deduction is as follows;

'Hence, the equation has either three roots or only one. If there are three roots one muſt be greater than $\frac{6}{3}$ or 2; but 2 being tried is found to be greater than the root, conſequently the equation can have only one root unity.' Part ii. P. 87.

This ſecond part cloſes with a chapter devoted to general obſervations, which are uniformly clear, and will be frequently found uſeful: and ſaving the unneceſſary innovations which we have already pointed out, and a few ſevere and, in our opinion, unbecoming reflections upon Newton and Des Cartes, as to their '*jargon and unintelligible terms,*' we have not met at any time with a treatiſe upon the ſcience of algebra which has more pleaſed us, or which we can ſo readily recommend as a book of initiation to our academies and colleges.

Reflections on the preſent Condition of the Female Sex; with Suggeſtions for its Improvement. By Priſcilla Wakefield. 8*vo.* 3*s.* *ſewed.* Johnſon.

MRS. Wakefield is diſtinguiſhed among thoſe writers whoſe efforts have been directed to the proper cultivation of the youthful mind; and there is perhaps no topic on which ſuch a pen could be more uſefully employed than on the education and purſuits of women. She juſtly obſerves that,

'The intellectual faculties of the female mind have too long been confined by narrow and ill-directed modes of education, and thus have been concealed, not only from others, but from themſelves, the energies of which they are capable. The exigence of circumſtances in private life has called forth numberleſs examples of female prudence, magnanimity and fortitude, which demonſtrated no leſs a clearneſs of conception, than a warmth of feeling, reflect-

ing equal honour upon the heads, and upon the hearts of the sex. Neither has history been silent in recording memorable instances of female capacity, in all the various branches of human excellence.' P. 5.

Some of the prominent errors in the education of females are thus noticed:

'An advantageous settlement in marriage is the universal prize, for which parents of all classes enter their daughters upon the lists; and partiality or self-complacency assures to every competitor the most flattering prospect of success. To this one point tends the principal part of female instruction; for the promotion of this design, their best years for improvement are sacrificed to the attainment of attractive qualities, shewy superficial accomplishments, polished manners, and in one word, the whole science of pleasing, which is cultivated with unceasing assiduity, as an object of the most essential importance.

'The end is laudable, and deserving of every effort that can be exerted to secure it; a happy marriage may be estimated among the rarest felicities of human life; but it may be doubted, whether the means used to accomplish it are adequate to the purpose; as the making a first impression is by no means effectual to determine the preference of a wise man. It is not then sufficient, that a girl be qualified to excite admiration; her own happiness, and that of the man to whom she devotes the remainder of her days, depend upon her possession of those virtues, which alone can preserve lasting esteem and confidence.

'The offices of a wife are very different from those of the mere pageant of a ball-room; and as their nature is more exalted, the talents they require are of a more noble kind: something far beyond the elegant trifler is wanted in a companion for life. A young woman is very ill-adapted to enter into the most solemn of social contracts, who is not prepared, by her education, to become the participator of her husband's cares, the consoler of his sorrows, his stimulator to every praise-worthy undertaking, his partner in the labours and vicissitudes of life, the faithful and œconomical manager of his affairs, the judicious superintendant of his family, the wise and affectionate mother of his children, the preserver of his honour, his chief counsellor, and, to sum up all, the chosen friend of his bosom. If a modern female education be not calculated to produce these effects, as few surely will judge it to be, who reflect upon its tendency, it is incompetent to that very purpose, which is confessedly its main object, and must therefore be deemed imperfect, and require reformation.

'Before the defects of the present system are pointed out, let an enquiry also take place, whether it be better suited to qualify women for sustaining the other characters which they may be destined to fulfil. Those of widowhood and a single life are the allotment of

many, and to ſupport them with dignity requires peculiar force of mind. Adverſity often places both ſexes in ſituations wholly unexpected; againſt ſuch tranſitions, the voice of wiſdom admoniſhes each to be prepared, by early initiation into general principles ſuited to fortify the mind, to ſuſtain the unavoidable ſtrokes of fortune with firmneſs, and to exert the moſt prudent means to obviate their conſequences; but the bias given to the female mind in the preſent ſyſtem of education, encourages the keeneſt ſenſibility on the moſt trifling occaſions, its chief deſign being to poliſh, rather than to ſtrengthen.

'The regulation of the temper, is of all qualities the moſt uſeful to conduct us ſteadily through the vexatious circumſtances, which attack, with undiſtinguiſhing annoyance, the proſperous and the unfortunate; and is ſupereminently neceſſary to women, whoſe peculiar office it is, to ſmooth the inconveniences of domeſtic life; though as a moral obligation, equally incumbent upon men. A well governed temper is the ſupport of ſocial enjoyment, and the bond of conjugal affection; deficient in this qualification, a mother is incapacitated from preſiding over the education of her children, and a miſtreſs unfitted to govern her ſervants. The ſelf-command recommended, differs widely from that apathy of diſpoſition, which is the effect of conſtitution; in order to enſure reſpect and love, it muſt poſſeſs an equability, which can only reſult from reflection and habitual culture. Such a ſubjection of the angry paſſions to reaſon and duty, accommodates itſelf to circumſtances, and the diſpoſition of others with whom we are connected; it gives a decided ſuperiority in every conteſt, and is of ineſtimable value to the poſſeſſor, on every occaſion of trial.' P. 29.

As a remedy for theſe miſchievous tendencies, Mrs. Wakefield propoſes ſeveral ſyſtems of education ſpecifically adapted to the ſtations likely to be occupied by various claſſes of females; and alſo inculcates the neceſſity of multiplying their lucrative employments. Several ingenious occupations mentioned by Mrs. Wakefield, are, if we miſtake not, already purſued with ſucceſs by a conſiderable number of the ſex; ſome others which are propoſed are perhaps of a nature repugnant to that delicacy, which, in our opinion, ought to be preſerved even among indigent women. Our author properly ſtigmatiſes the injuſtice and cruelty of excluding, from what is called genteel ſociety, females honourably exerciſing their induſtry and talents for a ſubſiſtence. In this animadverſion we heartily agree with her, and hope that it will not be unproductive of effect—the abſurd and pernicious pride of which it complains is, we believe, chiefly to be found in opulent provincial towns.

From the gratification we have experienced in reading the production before us, we are induced to recommend its

perusal. We are not fond of the amazonian innovations which pretend to consult the dignity of the female sex at the expence of its delicacy and softness. There are physical distinctions and moral considerations peculiarly relative to women; and the system-mongers, who confound or overlook them, deserve perhaps something more than contempt. A practical plan, not liable to any such objection, for the amelioration of the female condition, is, on the contrary, entitled to praise, as a valuable addition to the science of political economy—a respectable portion of this praise we do not hesitate to bestow on Mrs. Wakefield's Reflections.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS....POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Anti-Revolutionary Thoughts of a Revolutionary Writer: from 'The Secret History of the Revolution of France,' by Monsieur François Pagès. 8vo. 3s. Wright. 1800.

M. PAGÈS is better known in this country as a traveller and circumnavigator than as a politician, although at Paris he sustains this latter character with no inconsiderable degree of credit. In the year 1797 he published a work in two volumes, 8vo. entitled, 'Histoire Secrete de la Révolution Française,' which comprised a range from the assembly of the Notables in 1789 to the revolution of the 14th Vendemiaire, (Nov. 1) 1796; and it is from this work the pamphlet before us is drawn up. Whatever merit may result from an ardent attachment to the present chancellor of the exchequer the translator before us must be allowed to possess in a supereminent degree. To adopt his own language, 'the great obligations which England owes to Mr. Pitt are perpetually presenting themselves before him.'

'The time will come,' continues this zealous adherent, 'when in the cool and impartial page of history it will be seen with astonishment, that although in Europe the most complicated course of politics that ever embroiled the interests of nations, and at home the most ambitious and giddy faction that ever sought to hamper the wheels of government, have respectively occurred under the administration of Mr. Pitt; yet his well directed exertions and steady zeal for the public welfare, have not only delivered this country from the very jaws of destruction, but have raised it to a state of prosperity, wealth, and national consequence, unprecedented in the British annals.' P. x.

By way of contrast to this flaming encomium, we are imme-

diately afterwards presented with a picture of the '*Corsican adventurer*,' who 'for two reasons,' we are told,

'appears to form an enemy, if possible, more mischievous to the welfare of France, and to the interests of Europe in general, than perhaps any of his jacobin fore-runners. First; he unites in his nature all the ambition, cruelty, hypocrisy, which constituted the characteristic of the several tyrants who preceded him; with more craftiness to conceal, and more boldness to discover their workings, as occasion should require. Secondly; every scattered particle of jacobin-spirit is now as it were concentrated; and the people, harassed with past sufferings, and dreading to incur severer ones by resistance, are forced to stoop under the present yoke.' P. xiv.

The object of the writer, in selecting the passages before us, is 'to bring under the eye of the reader the testimony in *foro conscientiæ* of M. Pagès, an ardent devotee to French revolutionary principles;—one who, while under the influence of rapturous enthusiasm, nay, in the middle of a climax of democratic rant, that turgid eloquence of the modern Parisian school, appears at times as if the spirit of truth inspired him; and like Balaam, who blessed those he came to curse, reprobates his countrymen, whom it was his intention to approve.' P. vii.

In pursuing this object, the translator appears totally to have outwitted himself. If he had meant to have held up the advocates of the present government of France in a light of detestation or derision, he should have brought forwards a man, in possession of present power, justifying all the cruelties, treacheries, and blasphemies of the partisans of former revolutionary governments. But the passages here translated represent M. Pagès in a point of view strictly amiable, condemning in terms as severe as our author himself could make use of, the doctrine of equality, and the error of advancing metaphysical theorems in politics, which are inapplicable to the social state of man; as well as the sophisms, factions, insurrections, and barbarities of the jacobins, and indeed of all the different revolutionary parties to the present period. We find him condemning the proceedings that anteceded the murder of the king with a freedom which we rejoice to see permitted in the republic, and with a warmth of indignation which could scarcely have been surpassed by Mallet du Pan himself. And finally, we behold him speaking with high veneration of the political constitution of England, and pointing out the advantages which would have resulted to France from an early adoption of a similar system. And yet this, gentle reader, is the man whom our author represents as subject to 'the stars of fanaticism,' and cursed with 'the spirit of Balaam,' and whom he has selected as an instance of one of the chief monsters in the present government of France! We could not avoid smiling at the following conceit expressed in a note at p. 67, and we will close our review by communicating this smile to our readers.

'If M. Pagès had looked into Milton's Paradise Lost, he would have traced the pedigree of the jacobins, and found their lineal

descent from *Sin* and *Death*. Surely their great progenitor Satan had France in view, when, addressing Sin and Death, he says:

——— "There shall ye be fed and fill'd
Immeasurably, all things shall be your prey."

Congress at Rastadt.—Official Correspondence between his Excellency Count Metternich, Minister Plenipotentiary of the Emperor, the Deputies of the Empire, and Citizens Treilhard, Bonnier, Roberjot, and Jean de Bry, Ministers Plenipotentiary of the French Republic, assembled at Rastadt for the Purpose of negotiating a Peace between these Powers. Containing the Whole of the State Papers from the Commencement of the Negotiation, in December 1797, to April 1799, the Period of its Dissolution. From the Original Papers; with an English Translation. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Wright. 1800.

At a period when negotiations follow each other with such rapidity, and so little is done by them, the correspondence of a congress which, from the time occupied in minute and trifling affairs, seems never to have intended to enter seriously on the important point for which it was assembled, cannot be expected to excite a great degree of curiosity: yet to the statesman, and to persons employed in a diplomatic character, these papers are of high importance, and the collection of them is an useful service to the public. In these papers are seen the difficulties attending the boundaries to be settled between the Imperial and French republics, the rights of the princes of Germany in both countries, and the ease by which negotiation is kept up when both parties do not come with a determination to hasten the great object of their meeting—the return of peace.

A Determination of the Average Depression of the Price of Wheat in War below that of the preceding Peace; and of its Re-Advance in the following; according to its Yearly Rates from the Revolution to the End of the last Peace: with Remarks on their greater Variations in that entire Period. By J. Brand, CL. M. A. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1800.

The calamitous war in which we are engaged, and the misery occasioned in the country by the scarcity, are two events associated together by one party, and separated entirely by the other. The one allows that the scarcity has, in part, arisen from the badness of the seasons, but insists upon the misery being owing to the war; the other attributes the misery entirely to the seasons, and denies that the war has any tendency to raise the price of provisions. In the latter class ranks the author of the work before us, who produces various tables and arithmetical calculations in support of his favourite opinion, maintained on general grounds, that war depresses, and never raises, the price of human sustenance. In thus treating the question, he seems not to have taken a sufficiently extensive view of his subject; for the nature of every war must be contemplated before we determine on its effects as to this point. If an enemy overrun a country and besiege the capital, the productive powers of that country being diminished, and the introduction of food being rendered impracticable or attended with excessive difficulties, the inhabitants must be put to great straights, or exposed, as in the famous case of the siege of Jerusalem, to all the

horrors of famine. On the other hand, one country may invade another, subsist its troops on the enemy's quarters, and bring back plunder and provisions to itself: in which case, since many of the inhabitants ceased to consume the produce of the country, and provision was also imported, the war will be the cause of an additional cheapness of provisions. Thus, since war may make things either cheap or dear, *according to its existing circumstances*, we can by no means accede to the author's opinion, that it has an universal tendency to depress the price of provisions. But, to prove the position, a reference is made to the state of provisions in this country since the Revolution, taking their average during the terms of war and peace in which it has been alternately engaged. And here, fortunately for this island, these tables are very inconclusive data; the miseries of war have seldom been deeply felt in antecedent hostilities; and till we unluckily entered into the present fatal war, it was very difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain the effect of prior contests on the state of the country. Antecedently hereto the island was rising to its highest pitch of prosperity, and had so nearly attained it, that the wars in which we were engaged could not materially affect it. Whence it should happen that so much more evil should be generally attributed to the present than any preceding war is a very curious question, and the present writer might have thrown some light upon it when he was observing, that "the effects of war in the corn-market will be as our exertions; and, when those are small, the former will not be discernible in the prices, being entirely concealed by the much greater effect of the variation of the products of seasons."

This remark supersedes the necessity of a very rigid examination of the tables, and of some ingenious methods of interpolation, useful to the arithmetician, and deserving his minute attention. From his next subject, however, the increase of the circulating medium called gold, owing to some regulations in Spanish America, we have derived much useful information as to the fact itself, and its effect on the object of our author's inquiry; for he observes justly here, "that, if the quantity of commodities to be purchased by it continue fixed on increase in a less proportion than coin, the real value for which this universal equivalent will exchange will perpetually diminish." Now the two cases have taken place so obviously in this war, different from all preceding wars, that we cannot refrain from expressing our astonishment at the author's carrying us from Spain to Mexico, from Mexico to Portugal, from Portugal to the Brazils, giving us calculation upon calculation, long tables and difficult interpolations, charges of sedition and insinuations of treason, when he might have rendered his subject short and easy to all his readers. The exertions of this war have been far greater than those of any other period, according to himself; therefore their effects must be more discernible in the prices of the corn-market; and these effects have been rendered still more obvious by the unfavourableness of the seasons. Again, from the decrease of provisions, and the increase of the circulating medium of paper, standing in the place of gold, beyond all bounds of conjecture, it naturally follows, from the author's own data, that more of this circulating medium must be given

for provisions; or, in other words, that the price of provisions must be prodigiously raised; nor is there a prospect of their falling from their present price, since, if the quantity of provisions should increase, the quantity of paper money will probably increase in a still greater proportion.

Hence, though we cannot allow any stress to be laid on the inferences which this writer endeavours to draw from his tables, we give him great credit for his researches. He has advanced weapons which may be used on either side of the question; and if his arguments be too obscure for the generality of readers, they may afford some entertainment to political arithmeticians.

Dearness not Scarcity; its Cause and Remedy. By a Commercial Man. Humbly offered to the Consideration of his Majesty's Ministers. 4to. No Publisher's Name. 1800.

This is an excellent paper, and we wish the writer would extend his ideas upon the subject. Adam Smith, whose ample knowledge of trade and political economy cannot be comprehended by one of a narrow mind, or confined to the routine of a technical profession, receives due encomium in this work, in which it is asserted, that the cause of the present scarcity is "not understood either at court or in the senate; still less by professional men, or by men of letters; little understood by the middling classes, and not at all by the lower: but it is known to the wholesale dealer, to the merchant, to the negotiator of foreign exchanges, to town and country banks; and it is known, if it dare be reflected upon, at the Bank of England." In few words, the cause appears to us to exist in a well-applied term with which this pamphlet concludes—"the moonshine of paper currency."

Thoughts on the Dearness of Provisions, and the most certain Method to reduce the present High Price of Wheat. Addressed to the principal Inhabitants of Great Britain. 8vo. 6d. Robinsons. 1800.

The country is called on to petition the king to convene his parliament; then the legislature is to make a law of a very simple nature, merely to oblige every corn-holder to give in an accurate account of the quantity of corn in his possession; the bakers to declare the quantity of bread baked within a certain time; and the number of the inhabitants in the whole kingdom is to be taken. We presume that the writer never accurately considered the nature of a wheat-hovel or stack, or he would not talk of an accurate account of corn in the possession of the farmer; and he has not considered the time it will take to count off a million, and the nature of parish returns, or he would not talk of the number of inhabitants being taken with very little trouble. But we will not dwell any longer on this egregious trifling.

Moderation is Salvation; addressed to the People of England in the present Scarcity. By a Plain Man. 8vo. Sewell. 1800.

A well-meant patriotic attempt to encourage people to keep up their spirits, and try the effects of frugality.

'I live,' says the writer 'in a street which contains sixty houses, or thereabouts. By the more frequent use of vegetables,

and particularly of potatoes, I have been able to reduce my always inconſiderable conſumption of bread one quartern loaf and a half every week. Permit me to calculate (and thereby ſave you the trouble) how much that weekly reduction amounts to in a year: I beg to ſtate, that it ſaves four thouſand ſix hundred and eighty quartern loaves annually in every ſtreet conſiſting of ſixty houſes.' P. 4.

We wiſh that the writer had completed his account by ſtating the weekly expenſe of his vegetables; but at any rate we wiſh the rich to attend to this point; for if the miſtreſs of the houſe will order, and enforce the order, that only ſuch a quantity of bread ſhall be allowed that is requiſite for the family, the ſaving to the public will be immenſe. We like our writer's plain language, and have been entertained with his proverbs: "Moderation is ſalvation;"—"Profuſion may produce confuſion."

Effectual Means of providing, according to the Exigencies of the Evil, againſt the Diſtreſs apprehended from the Scarcity and High Prices of different Articles of Food. By George Edwards, Eſq. 8vo 1s. Johnſon. 1800.

Subſtitutes for grain—importation—compulſory means for procuring proviſions—reſtoration of peace;—theſe are the chief means, ſeveral of which cannot be denied to have a conſiderable effect. The mean of compulſion, however, would fail of its end, and is both ridiculous and unjuſt. The writer claims the honour "of being the ſole author of the preſent new and ſolid ſyſtem of finance, that of raiſing the ſupplies within the year, and the Income-Tax." We cannot imagine that there is a ſingle perſon in the kingdom who, whether the claim be well or ill founded, would be his competitor for the honour to which he aſpires.

A Word on the Times, to thoſe who buy: alſo, Five Minutes' Advice before going to Market, to thoſe who ſell. By Rowland Hunt, Eſq 8vo. 4d. Longman *and* Rees. 1800.

Very judicious remarks—very fit for the inſtruction of manufacturers whoſe bread muſt be procured for them from the neighbouring counties.

Strictures on the True Cauſe of the preſent alarming Scarcity of Grain and other Proviſions; and a Plan for permanent Relief: humbly ſubmitted to Public Conſideration. By Alexander Anneſley. With an Hiſtorical Deduction of the Prices of Proviſions. Interſperſed with various Matters connected with the Commerce and Navigation of Great Britain. Together with a Chronological Account of the ſeveral Statutes, Proclamations, and Parliamentary Regulations, for controuling the Markets, and preventing Monopoly, Engroſſing, &c. from the Norman Conqueſt to the preſent Æra. 8vo. 2s. Murray *and* Highley. 1800.

Mark-lane—Bear-key—millers and meal-men—bakers and farmers—are playing their tricks behind the curtain! Middle men are to be aboliſhed! All grain to be ſubjected to the exciſe-laws! Public granaries to be eſtabliſhed! More corn-mills to be erected,

to be worked by wind, water, or steam!———Such is the farago of this book. Yet we can commend his proposal for the encouragement of our fisheries, which can never succeed under the present salt-duties: and his table of the dearness of provisions in various years since the Conquest. We live, however, in a very different state from our remote ancestors; and if we will have good houses, good roads, and greater comforts, we must expect that there will be a set-off against them in the price of poultry.

Considerations on the present High Price of Corn; with a Proposition for the effectual Regulation of the Prices of all the Requisites of Life. Addressed to every Class of Society. By Homo. 8vo. 1s. Scatcherd. 1800.

This gentleman, who "exposes himself to our view under a mask," wishes the legislature to fix a maximum on corn: in other words, he wishes every man who can produce a good sample of corn to make it a bad one before it is exhibited for sale.

RELIGION.

A Summary of the principal Evidences for the Truth and Divine Origin of the Christian Revelation. Designed chiefly for the Use of Young Persons; more particularly of those who have lately been confirmed in the Diocese of London. By Beilby, Lord Bishop of London. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

At a time when infidelity is incessantly endeavouring to undermine the holy truths of our religion, it is with pleasure we see their efforts counteracted by the vigilance of those whose eminence in the church is adorned and honoured by an extensive learning, superior taste, and indisputable piety. If the infidel disseminate his poison in the cottage, the antidote is here at hand, for the distinguished talents of the bishop of London humble themselves to the level of the lowest capacities. But while we say this, while we give every degree of praise to the clearness by which this work is distinguished, and rendered suitable to those younger and less experienced persons for whom it is principally designed, let it not be supposed that his lordship's suggestions may not be perused by other ranks and classes of mankind with great advantage. We beg to be permitted to propose a slight change in the following passage:

'I have only to add, that although this little treatise is designed principally for the instruction of youth, yet considered as a kind of recapitulation of the evidences of Christianity, it may be found of some use to persons of a more mature age, by refreshing their memories, and bringing back to their recollection those proofs of their religion, which they have formerly read in larger and more elaborate works, and which they will here see brought together into one point of view.' P. viii.

In this passage, instead of "*some use*," we would read "*the greatest use*;" and to the students in the university, and the younger clergy, the continued perusal of this work cannot fail of being highly beneficial.

The evidence is presented in a series of propositions, which give

the mind an opportunity of weighing well each ſeparate point in the controverſy between faith and infidelity; and the ſumming of them up, which is done in a very maſterly manner, juſtifies the concluſion of the author, 'that a religion ſupported by ſuch an extraordinary accumulation of evidence, muſt be true; and that all men who pretend to be guided by argument and by proof, are bound by the moſt ſacred obligations to receive the religion of Chriſt as a real revelation from God.'

The ſtyle of the writer is ſo well known, that we might here conclude the review of this article without anticipating the pleaſure and inſtruction to be derived from the peruſal of the work itſelf: yet we cannot deny ourſelves the ſatisfaction of inſerting two extracts, which ſo forcibly delineate the character of our Saviour and his apoſtles.

'Whoever conſiders with attention the character of our bleſſed Lord, as it may be collected from the various incidents and actions of his life (for there are no laboured deſcriptions of it, no encomiums upon it, by his own diſciples) will ſoon diſcover that it was, in every reſpect, the moſt perfect that ever was made known to mankind. If we only ſay of him what even Pilate ſaid of him, and what his bittereſt enemies cannot and do not deny, *that we can find no fault in him*, and that the whole tenor of his life was entirely blameleſs throughout, this is more than can be ſaid of any other perſon that ever came into the world. But this is going a very little way indeed in the excellence of his character. He was not only free from every failing, but poſſeſſed and practiſed every imaginable virtue. Towards his heavenly father he expreſſed the moſt ardent love, the moſt fervent yet rational devotion, and diſplayed in his whole conduct the moſt abſolute reſignation to his will and obedience to his commands. His manners were gentle, mild, condeſcending, and gracious: his heart overflowed with kindneſs, compaſſion, and tenderneſs to the whole human race. The great employment of his life was to do good to the bodies and ſouls of men. In this all his thoughts and all his time were conſtantly and almoſt inceſſantly occupied. He went about diſpenſing his bleſſings to all around him in a thouſand different ways; healing diſeaſes, relieving infirmities, correcting errors, removing prejudices, promoting piety, juſtice, charity, peace, harmony, among men, and crowding into the narrow compaſs of his miniſtry more acts of mercy and compaſſion than the longeſt life of the moſt benevolent man upon earth ever yet produced. Over his own paſſions he had obtained the moſt complete command; and though his patience was continually put to the ſevereſt trials, yet he was never once overcome, never once betrayed into any intemperance or exceſs in word or deed, "never once ſpake unadviſedly with his lips." He endured the cruelleſt inſults from his enemies with the utmoſt compoſure, meekneſs, patience, and reſignation; diſplayed the moſt aſtoniſhing fortitude under a moſt painful and ignominious death; and, to crown all, in the very midſt of his torments on the croſs, implored forgiveneſs for his murderers in that divinely charitable prayer, "Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do."

'Nor was his wisdom inferior to his virtues. The doctrines he taught were the most sublime and the most important that were ever before delivered to mankind, and every way worthy of that God, from whom he professed to derive them, and whose son he declared himself to be.' P. 43.

'If now we ask, (says the pious author under the next proposition) as it is very natural to ask, who that extraordinary person could be, that was the author of such uncommonly excellent morality as this? the answer is, that he was, to all outward appearance, the reputed son of a carpenter, living with his father and mother in a remote and obscure corner of the world, till the time that he assumed his public character. "Whence, then, had this man these things, and what wisdom is this that was given unto him?" He had evidently none of the usual means or opportunities of cultivating his understanding or improving his mind. He was born in a low and indigent condition, without education, without learning, without any ancient stores, from whence to draw his wisdom and his morality, that were at all likely to fall into his hands. You may, perhaps, in some of the Greek or Roman writers, pick out a few of his precepts, or something like them. But what does this avail? Those writers he had never read. He had never studied at Athens or at Rome; he had no knowledge of orators or philosophers. He understood, probably, no language but his own, and had nothing to give him juster notions of virtue and religion than the rest of his countrymen and persons in his humble rank of life usually had. His fellow-labourers in this undertaking, the persons who assisted him during his life, and into whose hands his religion came after his death, were a few fishermen on the Lake of Tiberias, as unlearned and uneducated, and, for the purpose of framing rules of morality, as unpromising as himself. Is it possible, then, that such men as these could, without any assistance whatever, produce such perfect and incomparable rules of life as those of the Gospel; so greatly superior in purity, solidity, perspicuity, and universal usefulness, to all the moral lessons of all the philosophers upon earth put together? Every man of common sense must see that this is absolutely impossible, and that there is no other conceivable way of accounting for this, than by admitting what these persons constantly affirmed, that their doctrines and their precepts came from the fountain of all perfection, that is from God himself.' P. 56.

The Anti-Calvinist; or Two Plain Discourses on Redemption and Faith. By Robert Fellowes, A.B. Oxon. &c. 12mo. 6d. White. 1800.

The excesses into which some of the party now called Evangelical or Methodistical have run, and the increase daily taking place in the numbers of that sect, have naturally excited an alarm in the church, and the clergy are growing more earnest in their endeavours to recal their scattered flocks, and to point out to them, in glowing colours, the errors by which they have been deluded. Such a conduct is highly praise-worthy; but in the pur-

suit of error there is a danger of passing the limits prescribed by authority, and from a conviction of the pernicious consequences of some methodistical tenets, when carried into an extreme, the mind may receive such a bias, as, without intention, and indeed imperceptibly, may carry it into the contrary excess. The pleasure we have received from the very instructive writings of this author has perhaps made us more alive to any deviation on his part from the rules laid down by the church; and we must confess that, though we approve highly of many portions of this discourse, in which the overstrained tenets of the evangelical clergy are properly corrected, we feel ourselves at a loss to reconcile other parts with the doctrine contained in the thirty-nine articles. We would in particular point out to the writer the following passage:

'Though Christ both practised, taught and enjoined the purest morality, and though we are desired to "be holy, as he which hath called us is holy," (1 Pet. c. i, v. xv,) yet there are many persons, either through "pleasure in unrighteousness," 2 Thess. c. ii, v. xii, or wrought on by "strong delusion, that they should believe a lie," 2 Thess. c. ii, v. ii, who pretend that the sin of Adam hath so thoroughly tainted and so radically depraved human nature, that man is from his birth addicted to wickedness, and incapable of goodness.—But the Scriptures, when they are truly expounded, never teach, and our Saviour himself, in all his discourses, never published this loathsome and pernicious doctrine. The sin of Adam did not vitiate the nature of mankind. The punishment inflicted on Adam for his transgression was death and temporal misery. His posterity therefore are born to mortality and to suffering; but they are not born either in guilt or in wickedness. They are not born disposed to evil and indisposed to good.' P. 18.

Indeed the title of these discourses, 'The Anti-Calvinist,' is liable to some objection; for, if the doctrine of the articles on the subjects of redemption and faith be clearly Calvinistical, it little becomes a clergyman of the church to style himself, on these points, an Anti-Calvinist; or if the tenets of Calvin be carried too far by the evangelical clergy, it would still have been better to have assumed the title of Anti-methodist rather than the present. The controversy is certainly of great importance, and the difference between the two parties of a nature not easily to be reconciled. Our writer must entertain very low ideas of our Saviour's mission, when he can say: 'The Gospel of Christ is from beginning to end nothing more than a rule of life, teaching us how to live so as to please God and to be worthy of immortality, and at the same time denouncing vengeance against the transgressor.' The Gospel of Christ means the good tidings of Christ, the good news or message of the salvation of mankind, peace on earth, and good will towards men; and these good tidings were followed by a rule of life the wisest and the best ever devised for the happiness of the human race. On the different notions entertained concerning the Gospel, much of the present controversy hinges, the evangelical clergyman regarding the good tidings as dependent

on the nature of the faith which he imagines to be inculcated, and which he cordially endeavours to disseminate, while too many of the opposite description of the clergy neglect the foundation of faith, and are intent only on teaching a rule of life which is equally compatible with the notions of a deistical philosophy.

An Argument concerning the Christian Religion, drawn from the Character of the Founders. Translated from the French of J. Vernet. 8vo. Robinsons. 1800.

This argument we recommend to the consideration of both the Deist and the Christian: to the former, that he may weigh duly and justly, in his own mind, the reasons that have led him to reject Christianity; the latter, that he may with greater pleasure reflect on the wisdom of God, shown in the characters of those by whom the good tidings of salvation were communicated to a lost and benighted world. It is drawn up with much method, clearness, precision, and piety. We find scarcely any reason to differ in any point from our author, and even the passage which the translator would modify meets with our heartfelt approbation. We shall transcribe the whole paragraph.

'I acknowledge, that in the epistles, as in all such writings, we find passages which want explanations, and require at least that we should know on what occasion, and on what subject, these letters have been written. Every language and every age having its own taste and style; and every author making allusions to the events, the opinions, and the customs of his time and his country; in order to understand ancient writers, we require to have historical remarks, which may inform us of these customs and events; together with such critical notes, as may supply what is omitted, and enable us better to understand the object and connexion of the discourse. With such assistance, we do not find more difficulty in the letters of the apostles, than in every other writing of the same sort. The style is even more clear than that of many works in high estimation; and the more we study them, we certainly find more of their solidity and connexion. Very different from those fanatical writings which have nothing but the false glare of pompous disorder: very different even from a number of works, too much infected with a false philosophy or a puerile rhetoric.—It is a fact which many persons have undoubtedly experienced, that after having read many books upon the subject of religion, both ancient and modern, and heard discourses of every kind, they return at length with singular pleasure to the apostolic writings, as the best beyond comparison both in sense and taste.' P. 51.

To the last period the translator offers some objections in a note, and strengthens his opinion by quotations from Dr. Campbell, Tucker, and Amner, which would exhibit St. John's Gospel as the work of an illiterate Jew, St. Paul as dealing in far-fetched extravagant figures, and the writers of the New Testament in general, as not quite competent judges in the more minute and nicer questions of theology. The fault appears to us to

lie in the readers of the Holy Scriptures, not in those who wrote them, and the difficulties found in some parts of the epistles are to be compared with those which we discover in writings of the same date and nature, before we pretend to talk of the incompetency and ignorance of an apostle or evangelist. This whole note we could wish to see expunged in the next edition of this valuable and useful work. That our readers may judge of its style and manner, we present to them the important remarks with which it concludes.

'We shall perceive better the force of these proofs, if we recollect what has been before said, that there are rules in the moral order of things, to judge of men by their conduct, as there are, in the natural order of things, to judge of causes by their effects. Humanity has, so to speak, her constant and uniform course, in consequence of which, we never see men acting against their natural constitution, nor against all their interests present and future. We do not see parents, unless they be out of their senses, endeavouring to hurt their children. We do not see men so wicked or so foolish, as to be bent on doing wrong, without deriving either pleasure or profit from it. We do not see, that a man without virtue, either comprehends, or desires to support to the end, a disinterested and virtuous part; nor an epicurean expose himself cheerfully to all kinds of difficulty. Experience has enabled us to see, that every one follows his inclinations and his principles, and that it is uncommon for a man to belie himself for any length of time. Hence it is, that if we hear of any disorderly conduct, nobody thinks of attributing it to a grave and sensible man; the suspicion does not fall on any person who till then has lived without reproach. Hence it happens too, that in courts of justice we reckon much on what a witness deposes against his own interest; and advocates do not fail to dwell on the improbability that a man has, or has not done such a thing, his character and the circumstances he is in, considered. This reasoning is founded on certain rules which good sense and constant experience dictate, in order to judge of human actions: and hence arises what is called moral certainty, upon which the whole order of civil life depends. In what a situation should we be, if we could not reckon upon men's acting according to their natural temper, according to their principles, or according to their interest; in a word, that they acted from some reason or motive, by which humanity may be taken hold of.—There are indeed moral exceptions, but which we exclude, as we do physical exceptions,

'Now it is to admit and not to exclude these exceptions, if we say, as unbelievers are forced to do in this case,

1st.—That certain poor mechanics of Judea, without education and without talents, have formed of themselves the great and daring project of changing the religions universally received.

'2d.—That these men, intending to substitute to judaism and paganism, another plan of religion; have conceived a system the most sublime,—a mode of worship the purest,—a religion the most detached from sense, and from any indulgence of the passions—and which best unites, all the great principles of theology, with those of morals and of civil government.

'3d.—That these same men, who gave such excellent lessons on piety, justice, temperance, rectitude, and charity, and who to these lessons have in fact added a striking example of virtuous conduct, were however nothing but cheats, who have upheld all their doctrine by falsehood and blasphemy; making no scruple to offend God, to deceive man, and to precipitate their followers into a gulf of miseries.

'4th.—That these same men, who talk and write so sensibly, have been frantic enough to sacrifice themselves in cold blood, and with singular perseverance, to the strange madness of maintaining a story, of which they knew the falsehood, and from which they derived neither honour nor advantage.

'And lastly, if we are to take them for madmen and visionaries, we must confess,—that to these madmen and visionaries the world is indebted for a work the most difficult, and for the noblest change that ever took place in human affairs;—we must confess, that it is a company of wrong-headed men, who have diffused over the world the best lights it ever had, upon the nature of God,—upon divine worship,—upon morals,—and upon the final destination of man.

'Such are the tenets which unbelievers are forced to advance and maintain, in order to elude the proofs of the Christian religion. What greater credulity can there be, than thus to admit paradoxes, contrary to every thing we know of man, and of his nature, and contrary to all the examples with which we are furnished from history.'

The Liturgy of the Church of England explained and vindicated, so as to appear in perfect Harmony with the Scriptures, and very far distant from the Arminian System; now first printed from the Manuscript of Augustus Toplady, A.B. late Vicar of Broad Hembury, Devon. By the Editor of his Works. To which is prefixed, an Essay on the Character and Writings of the Author. 8vo. 1s. Rowe. 1800.

The Calvinism of the liturgy of the church is maintained with great strength of argument; and which would not have been impaired, if less contempt of the adversary had been blended with it. Whatever proofs the Arminians may conceive themselves to possess on the subjects of free will and predestination, they will find it difficult to enlist the church of England on their side; and the vindication of the church, in this pamphlet, deserves their examination and study.

Principles of Christianity; as professed by the established Church. For the Use of Schools. By the Rev. Samuel Seyer, M.A. &c. 12mo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1800.

In a very small compass are given the essential points of religion, as established by the church of England, with much useful information on the nature of the Scriptures. The chapters are short, and at the end of each is a series of questions, to bring the subject to the recollection of the reader. This mode of instruction is far superior to that by the common catechism, as it impels the learner to a degree of activity, and makes him read with attention. The

author has very judiciously also recommended to teachers a variation of the words in which the questions are put, and has given ample references to texts of Scripture, by which every point is confirmed. The searching for these texts will be a useful exercise for young people; and parents and instructors will find great advantage in employing each chapter as a weekly lesson for the youth under their care, and in dedicating a part of every Sunday to the examination of such lessons, according to the plan of the questions here proposed. The young will thus learn with alacrity, and the aged will feel a high satisfaction in bringing weekly to their minds the most important topics and duties of religion.

A Brief Explanation of the Assembly's Catechism, by the late Rev. John Brown, of Haddington; recommended by Dr. Fisher, of Glasgow. Revised and improved, with some Account of the Rise, Progress, and good Effects of Sabbath Evening Schools, in Scotland and England; and a Plan of the Mode of Instruction adopted in them. By W. Moseley. 12*mo.* 4*d.* Williams. 1800.

A tedious collection of questions on the Assembly's Catechism, which, from the preface, we presume will be the torture of many a child in the north of this island. We are advocates for the instruction of all ranks of people in religious truths, and well regulated Sunday Schools meet with our highest approbation; but the following anecdotes, evidently related with an air of triumph, affected us with very painful sensations.

'A minister from England, being at Dundee last summer, was conducted one evening to a room where sixteen or eighteen boys met for religious exercises, who had been converted in these seminaries. At the close he said, "My lads, I understand it is usual for one of you to conclude in prayer, and I wish one of you to do it." A little boy about ten years old rose up, and with much simplicity said, "Sir, if you please, I will." He went to prayer, and continued for about ten minutes, expressing himself in the most sensible, serious, and spiritual manner. When he closed, the minister said to him, "My lad, do you not feel a little shame in going to prayer before a minister?"—"Shame! sir (replied the boy), how can I be ashamed when I recollect these words of Christ:—"He that is ashamed of me and my words, of him will I be ashamed before my Father and his holy angels?" P. ii.

We are much afraid that these pert praying boys of ten years old will repeat like a parrot all the answers in this catechism, and by the time they are twenty forget both preaching and praying altogether.

A Third Letter; on the Itinerancy and Non-conformity of the Vicar of Charles, Plymouth; addressed to Henry Reginald, Lord Bishop of Exeter. To which is added, a Sermon, on the Mode of Preaching that becomes a Clergyman. By the Rev. R. Polwhele. 8*vo.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

If we are to believe this writer, his antagonist, a reverend dignitary in the same diocese, is an enthusiast and a fanatic, though at the same time "the most popular preacher in the diocese;" a

hypocrite, guilty of treachery, which however he exceeds in effrontery; and who has "relinquished all pretensions to the character of a gentleman." He is an unfair disputant—a Proteus; one "whom gentlemen must despise and shun; who acts in the double character of a churchman and dissenter, an itinerant and a nonconformist."—Surely the writer has forgotten the evangelical precept, to expostulate with his brother in private, and then, in failure of success, to apply to the church. This mode of appeal to the public is injurious to the interest of the church. If his antagonist be the character he is here represented, which we see no grounds for supposing, it became the writer to make a regular complaint to his bishop, and this scandal to the church would then undoubtedly have been removed by the ecclesiastical court. We cannot regard this letter to the bishop of Exeter as a complaint in proper form, and we hope and trust that we shall hear no more of the controversy. It is unseemly, that two respectable clergymen should hold out such a spectacle to the laity, or so far deviate from their own proper character.

The Charge of Samuel Lord Bishop of Rochester to the Clergy of his Diocese, delivered at his second general Visitation in the Year 1800. *Published at the Request of the Clergy.* 8vo. 1s. 6*d.* Robson. 1800.

This is the most fulminating charge perhaps that has issued from the episcopal throne since the time of Athanasius. The chief subjects of its denunciation are atheists, Socinians, methodists, and non-resident clergy. In speaking of atheists his lordship uses great plainness of speech: they are "miscreants; enemies to all moral order; crafty villains; sceptered pedants, allured by the paltry bribe of literary fame, to league with traitors for the subversion of the thrones on which they sat; children of hell." "A conspiracy was entered into by a knot of these atheists, to subvert all belief in Christianity;" and he "who can withhold his belief to the mass of authentic documents of this conspiracy, in the consentient narratives of Barruel and Robison, when he has perused their memoirs with attention, I scruple not to pronounce, that if his judgment is not biassed by strange partialities, he is one who knows not how to appreciate the value and amount of historical evidence." With respect to these *concurrent* testimonies we shall only observe, that they derived their materials from the same source, the book-stalls of Germany, which were weighed down with similar trash between the years 1760 and 1790; and the *ipse dixit* of his lordship cannot make us alter an opinion formed on a more extensive knowledge of the subject, and better opportunities of investigating it, before the minds of men had been ruffled by the terrible catastrophes of the French revolution.

The Socinians have a smaller share of his lordship's notice. "The laity of this country, the great majority I mean, have no better relish for the Socinian heresy than for plain atheism. They think much alike of him who openly disowns the Son of God [his lordship was probably here hurried a little, for the Socinians do not disown the Son of God], and of him who denies the Father: insomuch, that the advocates of that blasphemy have preached

themselves out of all credit with the people. The patriarch of the sect is fled, and the orators and oracles of Birmingham and Essex-street are dumb; or if they speak, speak only to be disregarded."

The great increase of late of the methodists is ascribed to the continued operations of the atheistical enemy. "It is very remarkable (says the speaker), that these new congregations of nondescripts have been mostly formed since the jacobins have been laid under the restraint of those two most salutary statutes, commonly known by the names of the Sedition and the Treason Bill:—a circumstance which gives much ground for suspicion that sedition and atheism are the real objects of these institutions, rather than religion." This suspicion is, in another part of the discourse, raised into a certainty. His lordship repeats what he had said in parliament, and adds a strong asseveration of his own. "I said that schools of jacobinical religion and jacobinical politics, that is to say, schools of atheism and disloyalty, abound in this country; schools in the shape and disguise of charity-schools and sunday-schools, in which the minds of the children of the very lowest orders are enlightened; that is to say, taught to despise religion and the laws and all subordination. This I know to be the fact." After such an asseveration as this, he "who knows not how to appreciate the value and amount of historical evidence" will certainly be very much biassed; yet, recollecting the insinuations thrown out against the early Christians for their atheism, profligacy, seditious temper, and licentiousness, we cannot thus join in the condemnation of any sect of Christians, unless some facts are really substantiated; and the author of this discourse may justly be called upon, by the methodists, to bring proofs of his allegations.

The exhortations to the clergy, to preach up with greater zeal the doctrines of the articles, meet with our unqualified approbation; but we were surprised at the mode of considering the difference in the interpretation of those articles. "I know not what hinders but that the highest supralapsarian Calvinist may be as good a churchman as an Arminian." The great difficulty seems to be to find out how an Arminian can be at all a member of the church.

Episcopal charges generally conclude with an apostolical benediction. How the clergy felt at the parting words of their prelate we leave our readers to imagine. "If the high inexpediency of non-residence is not suggested to your own minds by the detail I have set before you of the particulars of your duty, I know not by what words of mine I could hope to turn your attention to the subject. All that I shall attempt to say is this; that it will be highly to the credit of the clergy if the timely reformation of so serious an evil should appear to come from themselves, without any exercise of a compulsory authority, ecclesiastical or secular. The evil is grown to that gigantic size, that a remedy in one way or another can be at no great distance; and if persuasion prove ineffectual, or take not indeed a very speedy effect, other measures must be taken, and other remedies must be provided. But of that in another place."

In this abrupt manner the charge concludes, leaving us in wonder and admiration at the abilities, firmness, and undaunted courage of the right reverend speaker; but very much in doubt whether the cause either of Christianity at large, or the church of England in particular, was well supported by such a firing of invectives against those who wholly reject the one, or differ in their interpretations of the Scripture from the other. From the extracts we have presented to our readers, they must perceive that the charge is unique in its kind: it is a literary curiosity, which will in a course of time be purchased with singular avidity, if not with universal applause.

EDUCATION.

A Guide from the English Language to the French, or a French Grammar; wherein those Cases only are treated, on which the two Syntaxes do not agree; and the Rules are particularly adapted to the Genius of the English Language. By F. Henry. 12mo. 2s. 6d. *sewed.* Dulau.

Not having before us the grammar of the abbé Henry (which we reviewed in our XXIIId volume, N. A. p. 463), we cannot positively affirm that this is only a new edition of that work: but, as far as our recollection enables us to decide, it appears to us to be in substance the same work, with a new title and occasional alterations and improvements.

Grammaire Françoise et Italienne de Veneroni, &c.

The French and Italian Grammar of Veneroni, containing all necessary Instructions for learning the Italian Language with Ease; corrected according to modern Orthography, and the Decisions of the best Grammarians; augmented by many useful Rules, a Course of Themes, a Treatise on Tuscan Poetry, and some interesting Extracts both in Prose and Verse. By R. Zotti. 12mo. 6s. 6d. *sewed.* Dulau. 1800.

As an improvement of Veneroni's grammar has long been desired, an able corrector of that work would be entitled to the thanks of the public: but, on comparing the present volume with the former work, we do not find reason to bestow any high degree of praise on the labours of Zotti. The dialogues, which ought to have been varied and extended, are considerably retrenched: few of the rules are improved; and the additions are not in every respect judicious or necessary.

The Life of Rolla: a Peruvian Tale. With moral Inculcations for Youth. With a Frontispiece, representing Rolla tearing from the Rock the Tree which supports the Bridge. By the Author of the Siamese Tales. To which are added, Six Peruvian Fables. By the same Author. 1s. 6d. Newbery. 1800.

The principal part of this publication is founded upon the story worked up with so much interest for the public amusement in the popular play of Pizarro. The performance is professedly adapted

for juvenile minds; hence the writer, having found that Kotzebue had succefsfully created a Rolla, extends the fiction, and, whilst he 'indulges the playfulnefs of his imagination, and leads his young reader through the surprising and fanciful scenes of enchantment, he at the same time labours to convey those useful precepts that may be remembered when the ripening judgement of youth, in its maturer operations, discovers the fiction and retains the moral.' In justification of his plan, our author advances a position from which we cannot withhold our assent.

'That fiction is the readiest way to allure the young attention (he observes) is an opinion founded on a knowledge of the juvenile mind: the ancients resorted to fable, to attract hearers among the common people, who, like children, had few ideas; satisfied they could convince better by that easy mode of inculcation, than by dogmatical precepts, the terms of which they could not understand: thus the wise Esop ingeniously managed to convey the most important truths, and found fable a familiar kind of logic.' P. vi.

We think the writer's execution of the plan accords with the design proposed. Several useful lessons of morality are also inculcated under the title of 'Peruvian Fables.' Upon the whole, this little volume may be safely put into the hands of the young, as in it they will find amusement blended with instruction.

Instructive and entertaining Dialogues for Children. By Mrs. Guppy. 2 Vols. 1s. Hurst. 1800.

We forbear to criticise these dialogues, as we do not wish to deprive the 'girls' charity-school' at Bristol of any emolument which the authoress intends, by the sale of her little volumes, to appropriate to the support of an useful institution.

POETRY.

Lord Auckland's Triumph: or the Death of Crim. Con.—a Pair of Prophetic Odes. To which are added, an Address to Hymen; an Ode on the Passions; Advice to Young Women, or, the Rose and Strawberry, a Fable; with a most interesting Postscript. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. West *and* Hughes. 1800.

The subject of the "Pair of Odes" that compose the principal part of the present collection is too well known to our readers to render it necessary to stimulate their reminiscence. Much of the native humour of the merry-making Peter Pindar, esq. is still retained in them; though, to speak the truth, we cannot rank them among the happiest of his performances. We shall copy the following, which we are told is "a true story," as one of the best specimens of the pieces contained in the pamphlet:

'A king of France upon a day,
With a fair lady of his court,
Was pleas'd at battledore to play:
A very fashionable sport.

'Into the bosom of this fair court dame,
Whose whiteness did the snow's pure whiteness shame,
King Louis by an odd mischance did knock
The shuttlecock,
Thrice happy rogue! upon the down of doves,
To nestle with the pretty little Loves!

'"Now, Sire, pray take it out"—quoth she
With an arch smile. But what did he?
What? what to charming modesty belongs!
Obedient to her soft command,
He rais'd it—but not with his hand!
No, marv'ling reader, but the chimney-tongs!

'What a chaste thought in this good king!
How clever!
When shall we hear agen of such a thing?
Lord! never.

'Now, were our princes to be pray'd
To such an act by some fair maid,
I'll bet my life not one would mind it;
But handy, without more ado,
The youths would search the bosom through,
Although it took a day to find it!' P. 16.

At the end of this publication we find a Postscript, complaining, with no small portion of wit, but an ampler admixture of ire, of two critiques upon a prior effusion of our author's, entitled Nil Admirari *, introduced into the Anti-Jacobin Magazine and British Critic. But as we are not called upon to be umpires in the dispute, we shall leave the combatants to their own pugilistic powers, without any interference whatsoever;

For he who thus would interpose,
Perchance might gain a bloody nose.

Epistle to Peter Pindar. By the Author of The Baviad. 4to. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

Postscript to the Epistle to Peter Pindar.

Both these pamphlets are ushered into the world in consequence of the postscript added to the foregoing. Among the characters attacked for having abused the Nil Admirari of Peter Pindar in different journals and other publications, the author of the Baviad holds a distinguished station, and he here replies with a virulence at least equal to that of his antagonist. As the cause of truth is the only cause in which we can be interested in the present dispute, or indeed ever wish to be interested in any, we shall pass by the angry and unfounded note levelled against ourselves in page 7 of the Introduction; and observe, that Mr. Gifford positively denies all concern in the article of the Anti-Jacobin Magazine adverted to by the antecedent writer; and declares, page 20, "in the most solemn and unequivocal manner, that, till the present

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXVIII. p. 230.

moment, he never wrote a syllable concerning him in the whole course of his life."

Had the author of the Baviad confined his justification of himself to such a plain and positive assertion as this, he would have answered every laudable end, and have kept himself on a level with those gentlemen who, though equally attacked with himself, have had too much prudence to return any answer whatever. But the greater part of the Introduction, almost the whole of the Epistle, and more particularly the *anonymous* Postscript, are compounded of such low and Billingsgate abuse, such outrageous contempt of all that decorum which should ever regulate the language of the gentleman and the scholar, and which the public has at all times a right to expect from those who appeal to its judicature—such dark inuendos, and unsupported hints of the foulest of vices, that we have seldom seen their superior, and trust we shall never again be forced to witness their equal.

We shall conclude with extracting the following note from page 18, to which we cordially wish the author had paid more attention.

'I am much pleased,' says he, 'with a passage in the Life of Burns. "I never saw him angry but twice," says his biographer: "once for some neglect in the foreman of the band; and the other time it was with an old man, for using smutty inuendos and double entendres. Were every foul-mouthed (old) man to receive a check in this way, it would be to the advantage of the rising generation."—Excellent!'

The Battle of the Bards; an Heroic Poem. In Two Cantos. The Author Mauritius Moonshine, F. R. S. &c. 4to. 2s. Lackington. 1800.

It is not often that poets themselves compose the *dramatis personæ* of their own pieces, and still less frequently that they realise in their own conduct the peripetia of blood-stained tragedy: yet such was the *dénouement* we were led to expect from the ardour of the two foregoing publications;—and a "battle of the bards," though not quite so bloody as many of which we have lately heard, was at least as much a matter of course, from the declarations of war and the terms of defiance with which they were so highly seasoned. Our readers are already sufficiently acquainted with the transaction in the humble prose of the diurnal papers; and we shall only, therefore, notice, that the present pamphlet furnishes us with a repetition of the same, in mock heroics, embellished with suitable machinery and other poetical decorations. It is divided into two cantos; and, though the balance is sustained with a tolerable degree of impartiality, we think we perceive an inclination rather in favour of Sir Pindar than Sir Giffard.

Peter and Æsop; a St. Giles's Eclogue. 4to. 2s. 6d. Murray *and* Highley. 1800.

Ecce iterum Crispinus! By this quotation we mean, however, no affront to either of the combatants. The subject of the foregoing

pamphlet is in a considerable measure pursued in the present; though the ground, it must be confessed, is somewhat different. The dernier resource of a battle is at last appealed to; but it is preceded by a poetical dialogue between the parties, in a burlesque eclogue, happily parodied from Spencer or Virgil, and animated with all the spirit and flowers of eloquence with which the original publications of these redoubtable bards have of late abounded.

'These flowers,' says the writer, 'it has been my business to weave into a chaplet, to ornament their respective brows; and which, I trust, are of that amaranthine nature as to continue for ever in unfading beauty and lustre. With these I have intermixed others, taken from their own hot-beds.

'There were some, indeed, of such peculiar fragrance, and of such indescribable delicacy, that I thought it better they should "waste their sweetness on the desert air" than run the risque of being injured by a removal.

'To speak more plainly: Peter and his opponent are equally unknown to me but by their writings. To their talents, of which no man can think more favourably than I do, I am ready to do homage; but I must ever express my disgust, or be permitted at least to laugh, at the miserable, not to say beastly, use these irritable men make of such valuable endowments.'

But enough of this absurd and unnatural dispute. We trust the combatants have now peaceably returned to their own *harmonious* profession; and that the only contest which will in future subsist between them will be *for the laurels of Apollo rather than the laurels of Mars.*

Bardomachia Poëma Macaronico-Latinum. 4to. 1s. Johnson. 1800.

Bardomachia: or, the Battle of the Bards. Translated from the original Latin. 4to. 1s. Johnson. 1800.

Here we meet with another species of humour exercised upon this unhappy contest of the sons of Apollo, and which has by far the advantage of all the productions to which this fertile theme has given birth. It is published anonymously; but the name of the writer appears in every line we have perused: and we have no hesitation in attributing it to a learned and facetious divine, who has formerly amused us with similar effusions. We select the following, containing the entrance into Mr. Wright's shop, and the dreadful slaughter that instantly ensued, as a fair specimen of the whole.

'Pindarus, hoc viso, majori ferbuit ira;
Bili ac difficili tumuit jecur ansere majus!
Obliquè simul ac flammantia lumina torquens
Ad zigzagum hominem, resonora voce profatur:
"An tu Mæviades? insignis furcifer! an tu?"
"Mæviades ego sum: sed non sum furcifer:" inquit
Bombazdus Bardus—Respondet Petrus amare:

"Furcifer es certô—sed cur contendere verbis?
"Accipe quas meruit tua tanta audacia pœnas!"
Dixit; et, elato nodoso stipite, fronti
Mæviadis tremuli validos conduplicat ictus.
Alcides ipsus, Lernæ cum tunderet hydram,
Non aliter duras, densas, plagas repetivit.
Et, certè, si aliam plagam dare tum licuisset,
Consimilem, Bardi soulam misisset in orcum!
Purpureus, subito, fluxit de vulnere sanguis;
Ashæus color et rubicundas fundere cheekas
Est visus; squintos nox atra obcœcat ocellos;
Ac mors seemabat præcox decidere sortem
Eximii vatis; cum carminis autor Apollo,
Caræ ergò prolis, voluit servare parentem.
Heu! heu! Literalis quam grandis lossa fuisset,
Si tum Mæviades clausisset lumina vitæ!
'Protenus, elapsus nimbosa per æthera, Phœbus,
Peltieri simulans voltus et membra decora,
Descendit; mediâ ac se sistit bibliothecâ.
Tyndaridæ Juvenes, Castor cum Polluce, fingunt
Servorum facies absentis Bibliopolæ:
Tresque simul Superi, non æquâ lege, lacessunt
Unum terricolam! Fustim dejecit Apollo
De dextra Petri meditantis plura trophœa:
Dum Ledæ fratres, magnâ vi, brachia stringunt
Pindarica; ac hominem portarum ad limina pushunt.' P. 9.

We subjoin the English version, premising that it is far inferior to the humorous and pye-balled original.

'Him Peter spying, quickly to him ran,
And thus address'd the zig-zag gentleman:
"Thou art, if from thy mien I rightly guess,
"The rascal whom they call Mæviades!"
'"Mæviades I am," the bard replies,
"But not a rascal"——
——"Not a rascal?" cries
Th' indignant Pindar:—"never was a greater,
"Thou base, calumnious, everlasting prater!
"But why in idle words consume our time?
"Take this reward of thine audacious crime!"
He said—and on the trembling varlet's head
Twice his stout stick with all his force he laid.
Not great Alcides his repeated thwack
Laid harder on the horrid hydra's back!
And, sure, another stroke, so fierce and fell,
Would have dispatch'd the poet's soul to hell
Or heav'n—The red blood down his temples ran!
His cheeks, so rubicund before, grew wan!
And Death, untimely Death, with scythe elate,
Was ready to decide his instant fate:
When Phœbus, loth to see a poet die,
In bloom of youth, resolves to quit the sky,
And save a parent, for his progeny:

I mean the product of his fertile brains;
His lawful offspring—his satyric strains.
Quick through the misty air Apollo steer'd,
And in gigantic Peltier's form appear'd!
Castor and Pollux wait on his command,
And in the shape of shopmen by him stand.
Thus three immortals (fate extremely hard!)
Attack at once a single mortal bard!
'And, first, Dan Phœbus, with a sudden stroke,
Dash'd from his uprais'd arm the murd'rous oak:
Then Læda's brothers, with resistless pow'r,
Tie both his hands, and push him to the door.' P. 11.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

A Defence of the Profession of an Actor. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1800.

Our author, in polished, though occasionally in too highly laboured, perhaps inflated, language, defends the profession of a theatrical performer, and contends that he who animates the words of the poet ought to share at least in his fame and estimation. But the poet, whose memory is now adored, might, if alive, be equally neglected with the player; and, in our own times, Mrs. Siddons and Mr. Kemble may boast of attentions, in private, as great as those which once distinguished Roscius or Æsopus. Perhaps the irregular conduct of some eminent actors may have sullied the character, and occasioned the members of the same profession to be received with caution; yet those whose private lives have been irreproachable, have never found the attentions lavished on the stage withholden at other times. On the contrary, the stream of kindness, by having been occasionally restrained, has on other occasions flowed perhaps with profuse liberality.

Providence Displayed: or, the remarkable Adventures of Alexander Selkirk, of Largo, in Scotland; who lived Four Years and Four Months by himself, on the Island of Juan Fernandez; from whence he returned with Capt. Woodes Rogers, of Bristol, and on whose Adventures was founded the celebrated Novel of Robinson Crusoe. With a Description of the Island, and an Account of several other Persons left there, particularly William, a Mosquito Indian, and Capt. Davis's Men; including brief Memoirs of the famous Capt. Wm. Dampier. To which is added a Supplement, containing the History of Peter Serrano, Ephraim How, and others, left in similar Situations. By Isaac James. 12mo. 3s. *Button.* 1800.

We have often thought that the enthusiastic admirers of Shakspeare are the worst enemies of his fair fame, by tracing the original source of some of his striking beauties, and pointing out the prototypes of what had before been considered as his inventions. If the merit of De Foe could be lessened, it would be in some degree tarnished by the narrative before us, could we suppose him to have been acquainted with all the circumstances of the different persons left on rocks and desert islands. These adventures form an entertaining compilation; though the ingenuity

of De Foe (who details every contrivance with a ſimplicity which, in ſpite of conviction, almoſt perſuades us that the whole is real) will render his mixture of fiction, with a little truth, ſtill more intereſting. We ſeem to feel his narrative to be a real detail of events, and even truth ſuffers in the compariſon.

A Meteorological Journal of the Year 1799, kept in London, by William Bent. To which are added, Remarks on the State of the Air, Vegetation, &c. and Obſervations on the Diſeaſes in the City and its Vicinity. 8vo. 2s. Bent.

The ſituation of the inſtruments employed, particularly of the thermometer 'hung out at a window up one pair of ſtairs' in Paternoſter-row, is not the moſt eligible; and, from ſome comparative obſervations, two or three degrees of temperature may be detracted from the obſerved height. Of the hygrometer we can obtain no adequate correction, ſo that we ſhall not notice it. The *mean* of the barometer for 1799 was 29.85; its greateſt and leaſt heights were 30.65 and 28.94 in December and November reſpectively. The mean height of the *out-door* thermometer was 48.8; 46° nearly: the mean heat of April 44.5; March and June were the dryeſt months; July and September the wetteſt: yet, on the whole, the quantity of rain which fell ſcarcely exceeded twenty-one inches.

Elegance, Amuſement, and Utility; or the whole Proceſs of Varniſhing on Paper and Wood, with every Improvement. By J. Creaſe, Bath. To which is added, Gilding, Working in Black and Gold, mounting Drawings, cleaning Pictures, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Champante *and* Whitrow.

The directions in this little tract are clear and judicious. We therefore can ſafely recommend them to the practitioners of thoſe elegant amuſements which the author profeſſes to teach, and in which our fair countrywomen are now ſo great proficients.

Plan of Proceeding: Octavo.—Firſt Part. Holmes' Tract on Bodies Corporate generally, thoſe in Exeter ſpecially, which includes the novel County-Rates, Exeter, 1799.—Second Part. Holmes' Epitome of Political Hiſtory, ancient and modern, commented on, in Hope of affording ſome Information to the middle and lower Claſſes of Mankind, countenancing Virtue and diſcouraging Vice.—Third Part. Holmes on the Police of Exeter ſpecially, ancient and modern, as an Accompaniment to Izaacke's Memorials of the City. 8vo. 1s. No Publiſher's Name.

After all the attention that we can beſtow, we find it very difficult to aſcertain the object of this very obſcure author. He ſeems to be diſpleaſed at the levying new county rates, while ſufficient revenues, given for the ſame or ſimilar purpoſes, are poſſeſſed by the corporation. 'Non noſtrum eſt tantas componere lites.' As an apology, however, for our uncertainty reſpecting the author's meaning, and our inability to underſtand his very inverted incomprehenſible ſtyle, we ſhall tranſcribe his firſt paragraph.

'Dear Sirs, Exeter, the last day of 1790.

'The love of my king and country, duty to magistrates, and that equity may be the ruling principle in this city; being a deaf, healthy, independent person, passed 64 years of age; no family besides four houshold servants; a freeman of Exeter; S. C. L. Oxford; and my comfortable independence affording me leisure, with a disposition to study to promote the public welfare of my native city—I, therefore, consider myself bound by Christian duty to make known to you the truths of the premises, in a treatise, formed from genuine manuscripts and the best printed authorities in my power, of which I hope to shew that I now possess a plenty.' p. i.

The General-Apiarian, wherein a simple, humane, and advantageous Method of obtaining the Produce of Bees, without destroying them, is pointed out in a Series of Letters to a Friend. By J. Isaac, Secretary to the Apiarian Society, established at Exeter. 12mo. 2s. 6d. *sewed.* Johnson.

We are pleased with the judicious directions of the secretary to the Apiarian Society, and can safely, from experience, recommend his advice as perspicuous, comprehensive, and profitable.

Report of the State and Progress of the Institution for the Relief of the Poor of the City of London, and Parts adjacent, situate in New-Street and Friar-Street, Blackfriars: with a List of the Subscribers. 8vo. 1s. Phillips. 1800.

From this Report it appears, that 240,832 meals of an acceptable and very nutritious diet have been afforded at the expense of £. 971. 2s.; a circumstance very encouraging to humanity. But, to have a clear idea of the institution, we should be glad to know, in the next Report, what is the average time consumed by a poor person from his first entrance into the labyrinth till he receives his bason of soup.

Scattered Thoughts. 12mo. 3d. West *and Hughes.* 1800.

Scattered thoughts indeed! Lent, hot cross-buns, rolls, muffins, crumpets! And Good Friday is termed by this pietist the "most sacred of all days!" We should be glad to learn by what authority; since, though we know of many days having been hallowed in holy writ, we could never discover that Good Friday was placed at their head by divine, or even human, authority of any great weight. There is one remark, however, which families would do well to consider, and that is, the propriety of having cheese in these times after dinner. The total abstinence from cheese, in houses where meat is generally consumed, is a great saving to the family and also a benefit to the poor.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We have received Dr. Jones's packet, and the polite note inclosed in it. We return him our thanks, and shall be happy to hear from him in future.

Mr. Sedgwick's letter is received, and will be duly attended to.

APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRTIETH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Des Signes et de l'Art de Penser, considérées dans leur Rapports mutuels. Par J. M. Degerando. Paris. 1800.

On Signs, and the Art of Thinking, considered in their mutual Relations, &c. 4 Vols. 8vo. Imported by De Boffe.

WE fear the author himself has anticipated our apprehensions, that these volumes will be little read. The subject is abstruse, the arguments vague and flaccid, and the language, though precise, seldom elegant or clear. M. Degerando's attempt was suggested by a prize offered for the following question, by the National Institute: " To determine what is the influence of signs on ideas ?" This however was branched, in the programma, into many other questions. " 1. Would the art of thinking be perfect, if the art of signs were brought to perfection ? 2. Is it not owing to the perfection of signs, that in some sciences truth is received without contradiction ? 3. In those which furnish eternal fuel for controversy, is not the difference of opinions the necessary consequence of the inaccuracy of language ? 4. Is there any method of correcting a badly-constructed language, and of rendering all sciences equally susceptible of demonstration ?"

After perusing this work with some care, we cannot help thinking that a comprehensive mind might have reduced these volumes into little more than one. In English works, the

subject has been already exhausted; and, unless intellectual ideas can be measured and counted, certainty cannot be obtained. Definitions have been multiplied, in different English works of divinity and metaphysics, without the least approach to accuracy of language; and proofs have been logically, even mathematically arranged, without coming nearer to demonstration. Can language be rendered unexceptionably accurate? We think not, for it is not of a nature to allow of minute discrimination; and where words have been limited with the utmost attention, a suitable advantage has not always been obtained.—Let us, however, attend to our author.

His memoir, which obtained the prize, was comparatively short; but it has since been enlarged, and is now extended to the two first volumes. The first part contains the answer to the literal sense of the question: it is designed to explain the influence of signs on the formation of our ideas. The second part extends to the meaning of the question, and the views which appear to have influenced the Institute in its choice. It is designed to show the precise influence which a perfect state of language would have on the art of thinking.

'Each of these parts is afterwards subdivided, in a manner equally simple and natural. In the first, which is wholly historical, I shall be conducted by facts as they arise. Two principal points of view here offer themselves: 1st, the creation of the ideas, and the signs expressing them; and, 2dly, their mode when created. Thus this vast history of the human mind divides itself into two great æras; one which conducts us to the moment when man became *possessed of all the instruments* of thought, and another when he is engaged in employing them. In tracing the history of the first we shall explain how the individual, escaping from absolute ignorance and inaction, receives from nature signs already formed, and invents new ones; conceives ideas, and returns to retrace them; and how these two operations are entwined and connected in a thousand ways. In tracing the history of the second we shall explain all the operations which the mind exercises on these ideas, and show in what manner, by means of signs, these operations become the principles of all our knowledge: we shall point out how their perfection or defects determine our progress or our wanderings. It is thus, in studying anatomy, the professor first describes the structure of each organ, and then explains the functions for which it is destined.

'In the second part, which consists wholly of applications, I shall follow the order pointed out by the arrangement of our acquisitions, that I may demonstrate what improvement is still to be made in each, the means of obtaining this improvement,

and the advantage of ſigns (*langage*) as one of theſe means. The moſt ſimple method of arranging our intellectual acquiſitions is into the truths of fact, which conſiſt in the relation of our ideas to *things*, or to the external models which repreſent them; and abſtract truths, which conſiſt in the relation of our ideas to each other. Sometimes we wiſh to form a judgement of the exiſtence of beings, of their properties and actions: ſometimes, abſtracted from the world, and employed within the ſphere of our own conceptions, we are engaged alone in comparing them. Thus there are ſome ſecrets which we extort from nature, and there are ſome diſcoveries which we make by our own conceptions.

'The firſt part we ſhall divide into two ſections; one explaining the hiſtory of the formation of ſigns and of our ideas, the other treating of the operations of the human mind on theſe ſigns and ideas, which will of courſe explain their influence on our acquiſitions. The ſecond part will be equally divided into two ſections: in the firſt, I ſhall ſhow how the perfection of the art of ſigns will promote our progreſs in the acquiſition of facts; in the ſecond, I ſhall examine how the ſame perfection will aſſiſt it in the inveſtigation of abſtract truths.'

Such is our author's plan, which we have given in his own words; it is well conceived; and, excepting a little confuſion in the firſt part, between ideas and language, appears correct and philoſophical. It is not, however, purſued with vigour, and queſtions of facts are often diſcuſſed by empty declamation. We regretted that, when ſpeaking of hiſtory, he had not traced the ſubject hiſtorically, by inveſtigating the connexion between ſounds and ideas in brutes, how far *their* ideas are ſimple or compounded, and how far they may be expreſſed by ſounds differently modified or inflected. This might have been followed by tracing the ideas of infancy, which at firſt are equally ſimple with thoſe of brutes, and purſuing them till they become more complicated.

The firſt chapters of the firſt ſection are employed in analyſing the intellectual functions, of which our author ſpeaks with ſome preciſion; but he approaches too near materialiſm, without guarding againſt its ill conſequences. He decides alſo too poſitively on ideas being wholly derived from ſenſible objects. We mean not to ſay that in this he is erroneous; but he ſhould have conſidered the ſubject more fully, and diſpoſed of ſome diſputed queſtions, particularly that of inſtinct, which we think diſcoverable, in ſome degree, in early infancy. His ſyſtem of the inſtitution of language is that of the abbé Condillac. This uſeful medium of communication is afterwards perfected by experience and reflexion; 'but how many years

(he adds) would it not employ, to form a language so varied and artificial as the Greek.' This, however, he ought to have known, is not an original language. Its genius, its character, and its roots, have their prototypes in the Egyptian or Chaldee; and it was enriched, from other parts of Asia, by a large vocabulary of new words. The errors in the construction of languages, and the faults committed in speaking them, are explained with some care, and this chapter merits attention. The second volume is more interesting than the first; but, having developed its object, we shall not enlarge upon it farther. To select any part from a work which consists of a connected chain of reasoning, would be perhaps unfair, if produced to be censured,—and not peculiarly interesting, if intended as a favourable specimen.

The third and fourth volumes are, we think, in many respects, more captivating still, and display the author's talents, and the extent of his knowledge, in a more auspicious view. The second part, which we have said is on the influence which a more perfect state of language would have on the progress of knowledge, contains many valuable disquisitions. Our author's remarks on classification, and on a language founded on analogy, are peculiarly interesting. From this last subject we shall select the following passage.

'What I understand by the *language* of a science is, the collection of terms employed to point out the facts of which the science consists. This language will be analogous, or possess the highest degree of descriptive analogy, if, having fixed on certain simple terms for the primitive and elementary circumstances, each fact should be expressed by a derivative appellation, whose composition should recall all the simple signs which correspond to the circumstances, the union of which is presented by the fact.

'It is not of importance that the simple signs possess a sensible analogy; for the mind can easily retain a small number of arbitrary terms, and the memory will be only exercised by such combinations. In other respects, it would be impossible to find, for the greater number of elementary circumstances, such signs as would, in their imitation, be unequivocal.

'To conceive the advantages which would arise, in sciences of observation, from a language strictly-analogous, we must define with precision the uses for which such a language is designed. We have just said, that every individual requires words, to fix in his mind the results of his own observations; and that many individuals require them, to communicate to each other their acquisitions. In examining, first, the use which every one makes of the language of sci-

ence for his own purpoſes, we ſhall obſerve, that were it poſſible to introduce a perfect analogy in the terms of which it is compoſed, four remarkable benefits would reſult.

'Firſt, the words themſelves would be more rapidly learnt, better retained, and more eaſily recollected. In reality, with this hypotheſis, fewer words would be required. Having determined upon a few elementary ſigns, we ſhould poſſeſs all the data neceſſary for forming complex words. Seven or eight radicals would be ſufficient for many millions of combinations. The compoſition of words would alſo be regulated by the ſtrict laws of analogy; ſo that it would not be more difficult to aſſociate the radicals, than to learn them. A few rules would give a key to the whole ſyſtem. The ſight or the remembrance of the facts would be ſure marks to remind us of the names, for theſe are only the repreſentation of the facts. This experience would daily aid the habits of the language, and the ſenſes aſſiſt the underſtanding. In this way, language, preſenting itſelf in a complete deſcriptive tablet, might be caught at a glance; nor could a word be loſt; ſince it would leave a vacancy in the tablet, and the connecting terms would explain how the vacuity ſhould be filled. If we ſhould want any word, we ſhould not be obliged to ſeek it indiſcriminately: it would immediately recur, by a ſimple and methodical proceſs, directed by the analogous terms.

'The ſecond advantage is ſtill greater. With an analogous language, the facts themſelves are better fixed in the mind.

'The third advantage of an analogous language conſiſts in its cloſe connexion with a ſyſtem of methodic claſſification. In reality, the language itſelf requires and ſuppoſes a ſtrict and regular claſſification of the facts which it ſerves to repreſent.

'The fourth conſiſts in the power of multiplying, more rapidly and more carefully, obſervations and experiments.'

The illuſtrations of the ſecond, third, and fourth advantages, we have omitted, as it would make our article too extenſive. The obſervations on univerſal language, which conclude the third volume, are very juſt, but not peculiarly intereſting, after the comprehenſive analyſis of all our intellectual acquiſitions, in the very ſingular and juſtly celebrated work of biſhop Wilkins. Our author is however neither ſanguine in his expectations of ſucceſs in this attempt, nor ſatisfied of its benefits. He remarks, with ſome propriety, that works formerly publiſhed muſt be read, and their reſpective languages ſtudied; adding, that even the ſtudy of foreign languages is not ſo barren and unintereſting as ſome have ſuppoſed. The ſubject of univerſal language is afterwards reſumed, and the different attempts that have been made in this work carefully conſidered.

The fourth volume relates to abſtract ſciences, and the advantages which muſt reſult to theſe from the greater perfection of ſigns. This volume is not ſo intereſting as the third, and we do not think our author appears in ſo happy a light as in that of a metaphyſician.

On the whole, there are two modes of perfecting the art of ſigns; the one conſiſting in the information of the ſigns themſelves, the other in the more correct employment of thoſe which we poſſeſs. Language may undoubtedly, as our author contends, be rendered more commodious for uſe, and more favourable to the progreſs of intellectual acquiſitions; yet every attempt of this kind will not rectify all the faults, or make any language a ſtrictly philoſophical one; and perhaps the reformation for the one purpoſe may render it leſs fit for the other. The perfection of language, in either way, would have numerous prejudices to ſurmount; and the poet would loſe by the ſtrict preciſion which the philoſopher would require. We ſhould ſtill, probably, "talk with the vulgar, though we ſhould think with the wiſe."

Even in intellectual acquiſitions, as our author juſtly remarks, the ſame preciſion is not equally attainable; and, as we have already obſerved, ſpace and numbers can alone be meaſured or counted. When the ſame language is employed in abſtract ſciences, the attempt is ſometimes ridiculous, and generally uſeleſs. It was Pitcairn, we believe, who, after a laborious calculation, determined that the proper doſe of a medicine was in the ratio of the ſquare of the conſtitution; and the mathematician, who looks at Doddridge's 'Demonſtrations' of the moſt abſtruſe points of theology and metaphyſics, in the compaſs of a few lines, will perhaps ſuſpect that a definition has been omitted, and that the term 'demonſtration' means only a diſtant probability.

It is not without reaſon, therefore, that our author recommends the improvement of common language, and a greater attention in philoſophic writings, to the preciſe meaning of words. The arbitrary terms ſhould be employed more ſtrictly, and according to an accurate definition. The ſyſtem of language is too unconnected; and has not, till within theſe few years, and chiefly by Engliſh writers, been founded on the generation and progreſs of our ideas. This ſtudy will probably be purſued; and its advantages, apparent *à priori*, will, we are convinced, appear more ſtriking by numerous ſucceſsful reſults. In this inquiry, the poet and philoſopher may coincide; for the new and unexpected combinations of the former may contribute to illuſtrate the ſpeculations of the latter. 'In this way,' adds our author, 'we ſhall gain the advantage of being able to ſupport the empire of truth by all the charms of elocution, and to aſſociate the effects of per-

suasion with those of rigorous demonstration—of elucidating abstractions by a happy choice of metaphors, and bringing comparisons to the assistance of methodic definitions—of simplifying or expanding a thought, and giving it a form suitable to the nature of the subject, and the dispositions of those to whom it is addressed.'

Signs influence the art of thinking, either directly, by their immediate connexion with the operations of the mind, or indirectly, by the relation they have to the expansion of our faculties. However perfect, they will not equally influence or assist every branch of knowledge: in abstract sciences their perfection will be useful; in experimental ones it will have little influence. The indirect influence of signs affects, at the same time, the attention, reflexion, imagination, and memory; but each science employs these faculties in a different degree: experimental knowledge employs the memory, hypothetical inquiries the imagination, abstract sciences the attention, morality and philosophy the reflexion. Yet even the perfection of language would only assist, in some degree, the progress of science: it has many worse enemies than the abuse of words;—but this is no part of the present inquiry.

On the whole, from the analysis and specimens of our author's work, our readers will perhaps join in the opinion we have already offered. At least we have endeavoured to enable them to judge for themselves, and wish only, on this as on every other occasion, that *truth should prevail.*

Rélation du Voyage à la Recherche de La Pérouse, fait par l'Ordre de l'Assemblée Constituante, pendant les Années 1791, 1792, *et pendant la première et seconde Années de la République Françoise. Par le Citoyen Labillardière.* Paris. 1800.

Report of the Voyage for the Discovery of La Pérouse, undertaken by Order of the Constituent Assembly, during the Years 1791, 1792, *and the first and second Years of the French Republic.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* Imported by De Boffe.

THOUGH two translations of this work have appeared, we shall prefer at least announcing the author of this voyage in his original dress. It is singular that M. Labillardière should be the narrator, as he was only naturalist in the expedition, which was not completed when he left the squadron; and, though M. d'Entrecasteaux was dead, a successor must necessarily have been provided, who would be in possession of the instructions and the confidential details. On this account we shall not follow M. Labillardière in his censure of the conduct of the officers, or of the commander.—*His* merit must ultimately be appreciated by the discharge of his commission;

and of this we cannot at present determine. Of the object of the voyage we shall speak presently; but must first introduce the author in his own manner.

'Natural history was the earliest subject of my attention: convinced that we must investigate her productions, and form a correct idea of her phænomena in the vast volume of Nature, I went to England as soon as I had finished my medical studies. This journey was soon followed by another to the Alps, where the soil offers an immense variety of productions, in proportion to the varied temperature at different heights of the mountains.

'I next visited a part of Asia Minor, where I resided two years, to examine the plants of which the Greek physicians have left very incomplete descriptions, and had the satisfaction to bring back a very beautiful collection. Soon after I returned from this last voyage, the National Assembly ordered two vessels to be fitted out, to save if possible a part at least of those who remained after the misfortunes of La Pérouse. It was a glorious duty to join men who were employed to restore to their country those who had been no small benefactors to her. In other respects this voyage was alluring to a naturalist; — new countries would offer new productions, which would contribute to the advancement of science and the arts.

'My taste for voyages had all this time continued to increase; and three months of navigation in the Mediterranean, when I went to Asia Minor, was a specimen of a long voyage. I seized therefore with eagerness this occasion of traversing the Pacific Ocean. If to gratify the passion for study cost us dear, the varied products of a new country will amply repay the sufferings inseparable from navigation.'

In general, our author is well qualified for the task. The usual events, and the details of natural history, he could himself supply. For nautical observations he was indebted to M. Legrand; and M. Piron, painter to the expedition, presented him with a copy of all his drawings.

The ships engaged in these inquiries were the 'Recherche' and the 'Expedition,' of about five hundred tons each; the former had one hundred and thirteen men, and the latter one hundred and six:—astronomers, naturalists, painters, and gardeners, were, as usual, a part of the crews. 'It is painful to add, that, of these one hundred and nineteen, eighty-nine had died before my departure from the Isle of France. It must, however, be observed, that we had lost few only in the course of the voyage, and this dreadful mortality was owing to our long stay in the island of Java.'—Eighty-nine out of one hundred and nineteen! and in a voyage where English navigators have not lost a man by disease.

The fate of the unfortunate La Péroufe we have followed with an anxiety, to be explained only by a fympathetic feeling for his misfortunes; and perhaps in this Journal only has he been followed ftep by ftep, from our LXVth volume to the IId volume of our New Arrangement, and from thence downward in our XXIIId, XXIVth, and XXVIth volumes. We have always expreffed our decided opinion, that he fell a facrifice to the inhofpitable favages on the north of New Holland, and by fome accident rendered irretrievable by the Aftrolabe always following in the wake of the commodore. The National Affembly acted with fpirit and humanity in ordering this fearch, at a moment when felf-prefervation was occupying the chief of their attention. Their views fhould be afcertained by their inftructions; but, as thefe have not reached us, we muft examine them by the conduct of the commander; and to this we immediately proceed.

Much blame has been attached to M. d'Entrecafteaux for the courfe he purfued. He certainly in one part confeffedly went beyond his inftructions; for having heard that fome of our fhips, particularly one under captain Hunter, had feen at the Admiralty Iflands fome favages in European dreffes, and in French uniforms, he at once haftened there. It has been pretended that he fhould have vifited New South Wales for intelligence. He did not, and the event fhowed that he was right, for no intelligence had arrived there. If, indeed, the remaining crew had furvived either on the Admiralty Iflands, or any neighbouring land, the accounts could not have arrived at Sidney-Cove till it had reached Europe, fince it is the route *on the return only*. M. d'Entrecafteaux went immediately to the fouthern point of New Caledonia, from thence north and eaft to the Admiralty Iflands, the north of New Guinea, and to Amboyna. This was very nearly the track which La Péroufe's inftructions pointed out, as we mentioned in our XXIIId volume, New Arr. p. 484. It is however certain, that, in his letters, he feemed to have preferred the fouthern tract, between New Guinea and New Holland; but the admiral was perfectly juftified in purfuing the former, which was the line La Péroufe was directed to follow, when he heard that fome remains of a French crew had been feen in the Admiralty Iflands, in the direction of La Péroufe's firft inftructions. It is unfortunate only that, as captain Hunter was at the Cape fome hours before M. d'Entrecafteaux failed, he had not obtained completer information, for we apprehend the report was wholly unfounded.

From Amboyna our navigators proceeded to the fouthweft, to the weft coaft of New Holland, and coafted along its fouthern fhores to Rocky Bay. From the fouthern extremity of Van Diemen's Land, fince found to be a clufter of iflands, they again take their departure, reach the northern extremity

of New Zealand, and from thence proceed to the Friendly Islands, and anchor at Tongataboo. Why they went so far to the eastward it is not easy to explain, except from accidental winds, or from wanting a supply of provisions. It is more unaccountable, since the island of St. Croix was La Pérouse's most eastern destination, after leaving New South Wales. To St. Croix, however, they proceed from Tongataboo, after touching at the north-eastern coast of New Caledonia, and then advance to the south of the archipelago of Solomon, examining the north coast of New Britain, and pass a little to the north of their former course. They then visit the Molucca Islands, and make a fatal delay, as we have seen, at Batavia. After which M. Labillardière goes only with the squadron to the Isle of France.

It is a subject of considerable regret, that the southern coast of New Guinea was not examined, as well as the Gulf of Carpentaria and the north coast of New Holland: and the most difficult problem will be, to explain why, after leaving St. Croix, M. d'Entrecasteaux should proceed in nearly his former route to the *north*, while the south was not yet explored—the very part which La Pérouse determined to visit.

As we shall now leave the original work, and pursue our account of the voyage, in a future number, from the English versions, it is necessary to notice the ornaments of the French edition. The chart is executed, like all the French charts, with peculiar neatness: it is also unusually full in the western part of the Pacific Ocean, where, from the formation of numerous coral islands, the ocean, from the north-east of New Holland to Acheen-head, may in time become a vast continent. The map is, however, incorrect in a more important view. It is a faithless assistant in pursuing the course of the navigators, and by using indiscriminately the terms 'the first year of the republic,' and 'the year 1792,' as if they were different æras. In the English charts, the routes outwards, and in the return, are properly distinguished, but they are not wholly free from some confusion.

The second is a view of the Admiralty Islands, with several of their canoes with out-riggers, &c. executed somewhat harshly, but with great spirit and clearness.

The third is a man of the Admiralty Islands, strong, robust, and muscular,—the features approaching rather to the European than the Malay.

The fourth represents the fishery of the savages at Diemen's Cape, and the fifth their preparation for a repast, equally spirited and correct. Their fishery seems carried on by diving only, and their prey chiefly oysters, crabs, or lobsters.

The sixth represents a woman of Van Diemen's Cape (New Holland); and the seventh a man and a boy of the same coun-

try. They resemble in features the other inhabitants of this vast island figured by the visitors of Botany-Bay.

Finau, the chief of the Tongataboo warriors, differs greatly in character and features from the rest of the inhabitants of the Friendly Islands, and approaches the European. He is represented in the eighth plate; and in the ninth is a view of the black swan of Cape Diemen; in the tenth a figure of the black spotted parrak (a kind of perroquet); in the eleventh the calao of the Isle of Waigiou, a species of buceros, the horn-bill of Latham.

The twelfth plate represents the aseroe rubra, the spiders which the inhabitants of New Caledonia eat, with different utensils; the thirteenth a beautiful species of eucalyptus, the e. globulus. In the fourteenth is the exocarpos cupressiformis; in the fifteenth the diplarrena Morea; in the sixteenth the richea glauca; in the seventeenth, mazeutoxeron rufum; in the eighteenth the carpodontos lucida; in the nineteenth the mazeutoxeron reflexum; in the twentieth another species of eucalyptus, the e. cornuta; in the twenty-first the chorizema ilicifolia; in the twenty-second the anigozanthos rufa; in the twenty-third and twenty-fourth the Banksia repens and nivea.

The twenty-fifth plate represents a male and female savage of New Zealand: the expression of the former's countenance displays a horrid malignity; and in the latter the same features are only somewhat softened. The entertainment given by Toubau, chief of the Friendly Islands, to general d'Entrecasteaux is the subject of the twenty-sixth plate. The view of the country is wild and irregular, and the entertainment not of a very splendid kind. A dance in the same island, in the presence of the queen, is more soft and elegant, but scarcely more interesting. The double canoe of the same islands, the subject of the twenty-eighth plate, is very peculiar. It does not, like the other double canoes of the Society Islands, consist of two united laterally, but has two stories raised on a raft, and appears not destitute of elegance, though little adapted for speed.

In the twenty-ninth plate is a representation of Toubau, the son of the king of the Friendly Islands, and of Vouacécé, an inhabitant of Fidgi, a neighbouring island. In the thirtieth plate, a woman of the Friendly Islands, and one of Amboyna; and in the thirty-first, thirty-second, and thirty-third, various utensils of the Friendly Islands are delineated. In the thirty-fourth plate is a representation of a man and woman of the island Beaupré, an island to the north-east of New Caledonia, with no particular traits, and no very prepossessing appearance. A man and woman of New Caledonia follow: they are robust and muscular. These figures are succeeded by two plates of the implements and huts of the savages of the same island.

A species of picus of New Caledonia is next represented, with some plants of the same country, viz. the dracophyllum verticillatum, and antholoma montana.

The forty-second, forty-third, and forty-fourth, the last plates of this volume, contain a view of the harbour of Bourou, with a representation of the perogues of Bouka, of the islands of the Arsacides of New Caledonia and St. Croix. In general these plates are executed with great spirit and elegance: the botanical in particular are very valuable for their animation and characteristic appearance. The events of the voyage we shall pursue in the English versions.

Voyage à Canton, Capitale de la Province de ce Nom à la Chine, par Gorée, le Cap de Bonne Espérance, et les Isles de France et de la Réunion; suivi d'Observations sur le Voyage à la Chine de Lord Macartney et du Citoyen Van Braam, et d'une Esquisse des Arts des Indiens et des Chinois. Par le C. Charpentier Cossigni, Ex-Ingénieur. 8vo. Paris.

A Voyage to Canton, the Capital of the Province of that Name, by the Way of Goree, the Cape of Good Hope, and the Isles of France and Reunion, &c. Imported by De Boffe.

THE principal part of this work consists of observations on the embassy of lord Macartney and M. Van Braam. In the same style M. Cossigni means to examine the accounts of Stavorinus. It may appear somewhat presumptuous in an author who resided only a short time at Canton, and made one or two very limited incursions into the interior parts, to blame those who, to superior opportunities of information, joined greatly superior abilities; and we shall find many of the remarks rather captious than solid.

The voyage before us is not embarrassed by nautical details, or the events during navigation. We have neither dolphins nor water-spouts, flying-fish or turtles. M. Cossigni stops only with the ship, and finishes the detail when the anchor is weighed.—Goree is only a rock, about a league in circumference: the road affords good anchorage, but the harbour is obstructed by a bar. The island is scarcely cultivated, and the wood and water for shipping must be brought from the continent. It contains however a spring of excellent water for the use of the inhabitants. Our author saw here some 'negresses of singular beauty, with Roman features, very smooth and black skin, white and even teeth, large and fine eyes.'—Since the abolition of the slave-trade in France, the importance of Goree is confessedly little. Before their arrival

at Goree, and while yet beyond ſight of land, the atmoſphere was clouded by ſand raiſed from the coaſts of Africa. For the determination of the longitude he thinks watches the moſt eaſy method, though he does not on the whole prefer them to the lunar diſtances, which ſhould not, in his opinion, be neglected.

The Cape of Good Hope engages much of his attention. Its ſituation is convenient for procuring refreſhments in an Indian voyage, but he allows it little other merit. The cattle, the ſheep, and the poultry, are confeſſedly excellent. The pulſe is fine, but watery. European fruits abound, and the grape is of an extraordinary flavour. The ſoil, however, is barren, and the whole of the ſouth of Africa ſandy and without trees; which, in a ſtate of nature, are conſtantly produced by a fertile ſoil. The inhabitants are therefore diſtributed in the valleys, by the ſides of the mountains, &c. and the population can never be numerous. It furniſhed Holland with two cargoes of wheat only in a year, beſides what was ſent to Batavia, which returned, however, a greater proportion of rice. There is no great portion of land ſo rich as not to require manuring, and they prefer the dung of cattle; that of horſes being, in their opinion, too hot. They never hoe, or employ marle, lime, or gypſum, have but one harveſt a year, and allow the ground to be one year fallow. In the Iſles of France and Reunion, they have, he obſerves, a crop of maize, or rice, after the harveſt of wheat. The wheat of the Cape is ſubject to ruſt: the return about ten for one.

The Cape has no port. When a ſhip wants 'to heave down,' ſhe muſt go to Saldanha Bay, fifteen leagues to the north-weſt, where water is with difficulty procured, and proviſions ſcarce. The road is unſafe from May to September, and ſhips are then obliged to go up to Falſe Bay, on the other ſide of Table mountain. The incurſions of the Caffrees and Boſhiemen are occaſionally troubleſome; but, with prudent management, may, our author thinks, be prevented. The only tree found in the neighbourhood of the Cape is the Protea argentea: the foreſts are far within; and, about four leagues to the north-weſt, is a wood compoſed wholly of camphire trees. The European trees have degenerated there. Our author recommends trying the black wood of India, a ſpecies of acacia, as of quick growth, and affording wood very proper for joiner's work.

'It ſeems to me that ſome eſtabliſhments ſhould be formed on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, at the bottom of ſome of the bays, where the anchorage is firm and the acceſs eaſy. The Company ſhould there build ſtorehouſes, to receive the rents of the coloniſts, and furniſh in return goods of every

kind. They ſhould have cruiſing veſſels for the ſafe ſeaſon, which might return to water in Saldanha-Bay, where a dock-yard ſhould be conſtructed. This very ſimple plan would be highly advantageous to the Company, and contribute greatly to the proſperity of the colony.'

Such is the whole of our author's account of the Cape which has any pretenſions to novelty. We muſt, however, allow it to be tolerably correct; though it is neceſſary to beware of a bias, which leads him to raiſe the importance of the Mauritius at the expence of the Cape. We have often expreſſed our opinion, that this extremity of Africa, without ever being highly valuable as a colony, might be rendered very productive, and, by its returns, more than counterbalance its expences. Should it do this, a very convenient reſting-place might be obtained at an eaſy rate.

In the voyage to the Mauritius (Iſle of France) the luminous appearance of the ſea was found to proceed from phoſphoreſcent inſects. A rippling in the ocean was attributed by the ſeamen to a current; but, as it was tranſitory, our author rather thought it owing to electricity. He ſhould however have known, that ſo general a conductor as water would not have admitted of ſo partial an effect, or allow it to be for any time confined.

'We noticed the Iſle of Roderigue, about one hundred leagues to the windward of the Iſle of France. It is uninhabited, ten or twelve leagues in circumference, has little wood, and ſome tolerably high mountains, with plains ſuſceptible of cultivation, refreſhed by rivulets of excellent water. It has a port to leeward, where ſome ſhips of the line may anchor. It once afforded a large number of tortoiſes, but many have been carried to the Iſle of France, and the reſt devoured by the rats and wild cats.'

On arriving at the Iſle of France, the veſſel muſt hold her wind, as the moſt frequented port is to leeward of the wind which uſually blows in theſe ſeas. If the gale be not ſtrong, a ſweet perfume is perceived to expand around, which is attributed to the flowers of the canella, though improperly, as theſe have rather a fœtid ſmell. The iſland itſelf is peculiarly valuable, by having two ports, one to leeward and the other to windward, which may eaſily be ſecured from ſtorms: and the interior, though far from the degree of proſperity of which it is ſuſceptible, offers every kind of refreſhment to navigators. It is about fifty leagues in circumference; and, beſides the two ports, has many roads, more or leſs ſafe. The ſoil is volcanic, with numerous baſaltic columns, and the ſhore covered with the debris of corals and madrepores, which make tolerable lime. The whole is enlivened by uſeful trees.

The north-west port, which leads to a large, regularly-built city, is the only one frequented by vessels. Its entry is straight, and defended by forts to the right and left. The height of the neighbouring mountains would seemingly protect it from hurricanes; but this is by no means the case. They are always preceded by a remarkable fall of the barometer, and violence of the waves on the reefs, even though there is not the slightest wind. Rice, maize, manioc, and three valuable kinds of potatoes, with almost every fruit, and every different kind of pulse, from India, China, Madagascar, and Europe, grow there luxuriantly. The sagoutier, or the bread-fruit tree, where the farina is found in the interstices of the wood, is a most valuable production of this island, though we believe not an indigenous one. Another valuable tree of the same kind, called the mallora, a variety of the voakoa, another palm-tree of Madagascar, grows here also, whose farina is contained in the fruit. The means of procuring the farina of these trees, its management and useful qualities, are distinctly described. The slaves, their mode of living, and their management, is noticed with equal care. The great nuisances of this island were the whirlwinds, which they still experience, and the beetles, which the martins, introduced from India, and which have greatly multiplied, destroy, and will soon extirpate. It is said that, in Siam, a large species of rats have been introduced, which feed on the bamboo only: these are in constant hostility with the other rats, which they have almost wholly destroyed. It will be lucky if their new allies are not more injurious; for, with us, the present rat, which is of Norway, has destroyed the black English rat, without lessening the evil. The game and fish, in these regions, abound; but a numerous tribe of predatory birds are highly injurious.

In general, as a place of refreshment for worn-out navigators, our author thinks it excellent; as a port, it abounds with every convenience. In a commercial view, it can furnish various objects of trade, such as sugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, spices, &c: in a military light, it may be a depôt, which will supply an army and a navy for any attempt. A plan for promoting its prosperity is subjoined: *we know* that our government is in possession of a plan for its conquest, but we know not why it is not executed.

The Isle of Bourbon (the Isle of Reunion) was colonised more early than the Mauritius, which was settled only in 1722; its air is more wholesome, and its population more considerable. Its mountains are more numerous and lofty; and it has still a volcano, which occasionally discharges, without injury, as there are no habitations in the neighbourhood, or in the course of the lava. It has however no port, and the

landing is always dangerous. The productions of the Isle of Reunion are the same as those of Mauritius.

We shall not follow our author to Java, Sumatra, &c. but rest with him again at Canton, omitting the navigation of the river Tigris, which affords nothing new. We will stop, however, to transcribe the following ideas, wholly French, though introduced with somewhat of an apology. The passage is not long.

'The customs of a people so widely different from Europeans cannot be easily appreciated, because men in general refer their opinions to their customs; and what differs from these they think strange,—what opposes them absurd. The Chinese are in the same situation when they judge of us. How many Parisians will be surprised to learn, that, even in the capital cities of Nankin and Pekin, there are no public-walks, no regular entertainments, concerts, or balls; no idlers, who wish only to attract observation, and introduce new fashions; no annuitants, no landlords who consume the products of their lands without tilling them. Every individual is constantly employed. The women are confined; so that there are no opportunities of captivating, by the variety, the grace, the elegance, and richness of dress. These causes produce a simplicity of attire, without grace, elegance, or manners. The Chinese are nearly the same at present as formerly; I say *nearly*, for the hat is of the Tartar fashion. They once had long hair, but were ordered to cut it; and they obeyed without remonstrance.'

The account of tea is full, and we believe accurate, but not new. If the English were to attempt to cultivate the plant in Bengal, it must be, he thinks, in the northern parts. In the Isle of France it has failed. In our author's opinion, the cultivation may succeed on the mountains, in the south of Madagascar, and still better on those of the Cape of Good Hope; but the plants must be carefully brought from the interior of China. We shall however add, once for all, that in philosophy our author appears but an indifferent proficient, in natural history his knowledge is imperfect, and in his medical receipts he displays the unbounded credulity of a weak mind. We can best depend on his decisions in political œconomy. It has been the object of his studies: he is there at home.

A modern author has observed, that the festival, when the emperor descends from the throne to guide the plough, is as frivolous as the Grecian worship of Ceres, and does not prevent millions of the Chinese from dying of hunger. 'This author has not seen,' adds M. Cossigni, 'that this festival, repeated the same day through the whole empire by every governor, every general, and every priest, is a religious cere-

mony only, and that its object is to implore the benevolent protection of the Divinity on agriculture. The emperor, and every one who aſſiſts at it, prepare themſelves by a faſt of three days. It is preceded by a ſolemn ſacrifice. The harveſt of the field, thus tilled, is preſerved with reſpect, and employed only in great ſacrifices to Chang-ti, or the Sovereign Lord.'

The homage paid to the Divine Being is pure. Each individual, of every different religion, may join in it, and the prieſt has little ſhare. 'The Chineſe are ſubject to famines. True; but where,' adds M. Coſſigni, 'can they be ſupplied. A thouſand ſhips, of a thouſand tons each, would afford only ſix pounds of rice to each individual, where the population amounts to 350,000,000 of inhabitants. All the countries of the Eaſt could not produce ſuch an immenſe reſource; ſo that the Chineſe muſt depend on themſelves. It is in vain,' he obſerves, 'to think that commerce can afford ſubſiſtence to a numerous nation; and the Engliſh, maſters of the ſea, whoſe population is not equal to that of one of the ſmalleſt provinces of China, not one-fortieth part of the whole empire, have experienced the truth of this doctrine.' We may add, that the fact is not true in the ſenſe thus ſtated. England wanted aſſiſtance from commerce, and has obtained it.

M. Coſſigni attempts to be their panegyriſt, for not having improved in the fine arts. If any thing can be drawn from his apology, it is, that theſe will not make men happier, or a nation more proſperous; that the Chineſe had them before us, and might ſtill have them, if they thought their advantages would repay their labour. They are our rivals, he remarks, in ſpeculative and practical morality, in agriculture and legiſlation. In this aſſertion there is nothing ſolid. China is, on the whole, an infertile ſoil,—its inhabitants temperate and laborious. Hence ſuch a ſoil, without any ſpeculative or practical morality, without any legiſlative excellence, will feed, in general, numerous inhabitants; and, in ſuch circumſtances, inhabitants will neceſſarily increaſe. It is a trait of ſingular humanity, that the emperor alone can pronounce ſentence of death, and that the warrant muſt be ſigned three times, in three different councils, before it can be put in execution. Their other puniſhments, however, are highly cruel, though the late emperor, Kien Long, prohibited mutilation. Slavery is ſtill common. Yet for every cuſtom our author has a reaſon, an apology, or a panegyric.

Our traveller gives but a ſhort account of the porcelain manufacture, and mentions chiefly the painting, the only part which the Europeans are permitted, we believe, to ſee. 'They have many methods of mending broken china. They rivet the pieces, ſomewhat like our manufacturers, but the ri-

vets do not pass through: secondly, they cement the parts; and this seems the best method. They take the animal part of corn (the bran), made into a paste, and well washed; this they mix with the white of an egg, and suffer the whole to ferment. It is then used as a cement, and the pieces kept in close contact for some days. The Malays have another method: they dry the cheesy part of curdled milk, and keep it for the same purpose. This they scrape, and mix it with powdered lime and milk.'—This last method we know to be very effectual.

In some slight excursions, which were permitted, into the interior, our author observed a Tartar village; and at the foot of the walls were many bones, which were said to be the remains of criminals thrown from the top, and left as the prey of rapacious birds. The privation of burial is the greatest punishment to a Chinese, as the tombs of their ancestors are objects of regard and veneration. It was added, that adulterers were tied together, face to face, between two planks, and thus thrown into the sea. This is also probably true, as the Chinese are scrupulous about shedding blood. On the commerce of the Chinese we need not enlarge: our author alone, we believe, ever spoke with respect of their commercial knowledge or integrity; but he seems to feel it a tender subject. On their diseases, or rather the diseases of Canton, and their remedies, he is not very instructive. The Chinese agriculture is now sufficiently known. They manure their lands by watering, and cultivate the bottoms of ponds which are occasionally dry, and even plant the bulbous aquatic plants in those which are not so. In this we see only patient industry, excited by frequently-returning famine: our author surveys it with admiration, as arising from a knowledge almost supernatural.

The Chinese make paper with silk, with the bamboo, with the stalks of vegetables, and with the bark of the tchu-kou, a kind of fig-tree, which he thinks would grow in France, and of the cultivation of which he gives a full and interesting account. He saw no uncommon animals in China, and adds nothing to our knowledge of its religion, its music, or its arts. The literary mandarins suppose that China was peopled by a race from the heights of Tartary. This does not seem to our author, on the whole, probable; and the Miao-tse, a hardy race of mountaineers inhabiting the internal parts of China, subdued by Kien Long, are probably the aborigines of this nation, driven into inaccessible fastnesses by the Tartarian horse. Some farther particulars of this interesting race would be highly valuable—interesting, we mean, with respect to the great question of early population, rather than any thing peculiar to themselves. Our author's return offers nothing particularly worthy of notice.

The second part of this work contains 'observations on

lord Macartney's embaſſy;' in which, as we have already obſerved, many of the remarks are rather captious than ſolid; and ſome of the criticiſms, we perceive, ariſe from the errors of the French tranſlator. Thus we find many complaints why the accounts were not more particular:—in one or two inſtances, why plants were not more ſcientifically deſcribed, when we are informed they were not in bloom. He muſt know, that to be inquiſitive was not the way to learn, as it would lead to ſuſpicion, and conſequently to more cautious vigilance. It cannot have eſcaped even an inattentive reader, that the embaſſadors were not in a much better ſituation than ſtate-priſoners, and that guards of honour had alſo a ſecond and leſs honourable office. We cannot, however, follow theſe remarks particularly. We ſhall notice a few, where the author's obſervations ſeem to merit ſome attention, confining ourſelves to China. Previous, however, to his criticiſms on ſir George Staunton's narrative, he combats the aſſertions of the French tranſlator, and particularly thoſe which relate to the early and extenſive navigation of the Chineſe.

The firſt remark of importance, in a national view, is on the inſtructions given to captain Gower of the Lion. 'When I compare,' ſays he, 'the extenſive views of the Britiſh cabinet with the contracted ones of our former government, I am jealous of the one, though compelled to admire them, and indignant at the other.' From the route, and other circumſtances, M. Coſſigni ſeems to be convinced that one of the objects of this embaſſy was to procure the port of Taron, in Cochin-China, to form an eſtabliſhment. It went afterwards, he thinks, to Canton, to *demand* the ceſſion of the iſland Wampon, in the river of Canton, or of Macao; perhaps to obtain the excluſive privilege of the commerce of China; offering, in return, to clear the coaſt of pirates. 'The Engliſh nation carried its views farther. Its object was to reconnoitre ſome of the principal iſlands in the Chineſe ſeas, to diſcover where it could form an advantageous eſtabliſhment, from whence it might give laws to the Chineſe, by cruiſing on their coaſts, and ſeizing their veſſels: after that, to attempt to open the ports of Japan excluſively to itſelf. The Lion was alſo directed to go to Mindanao, which is independent of the Spaniards, and in open hoſtility to Gillolo, one of the Moluccas not under the dominion of Holland,' &c.—Though much of this is conjectural, yet the whole may have ſome degree of truth; and it may be equally true, that the ultimate object was to ſhare the ſpice-trade with Holland, then one of the allies of England; for to take it away (the author's expreſſion) would be impoſſible. Is there in all this any thing criminal, any thing diſhonourable? for, as to giving law to China, by

attacking its veſſels, is an addition of M. Coſſigni. He contraſts this conduct with that of La Pérouſe, in one inſtance: let him contraſt it with La Pérouſe's conduct in another. In theſe ſame ſeas, while entertained in a Spaniſh harbour, he confeſſedly took plans of its forts, and arranged a mode of attacking them. We noticed the paragraph in our review of his voyage.

On the paſſage which deſcribes the number of people who in China live on the water, M. Coſſigni adds the following remarks:—'I have ſeen, at Canton, the town of boats on the river. They are arranged in files, and form ſtreets. I have been told that theſe inhabitants of the water are forbidden to live on land:—*there they are born, and there they die.* I know not whether they are enjoined by religious or political motives to adopt this habitation. A man of credit, acquainted with the Chineſe language, who had lived five years at Canton, told me, that the number obliged to live in boats amounted to 300,000 ſouls, including the ladies of pleaſure, the whole number of which amounts to 40,000, and who are forbidden to reſide on land. It is ſingular, and truly unuſual in Aſiatic princes, that the Chineſe monarch has no titles. His public edicts mention only his name and the year of his reign, or the date of the edict.'

M. Coſſigni defends, in ſome meaſure, the expoſure of children. More might be killed in ſecret than now die, for thoſe who are found are brought up by government or charitable perſons. We ſhall add one other remark, as a ſpecimen of his general manner, and the very indiſtinct ideas he poſſeſſes of medicine.

'CCXXXVIII. Among the number of things proper to ſtrike the imagination of the Chineſe, and convince them of the ſuperiority of the Europeans in what concerns the ſciences and arts, ſir G. Staunton places the operation for recovering the ſight by the depreſſion or extraction of the cataract. I knew a perſon at Pondicherry who had been blind from his youth, I believe, in conſequence of the ſmall-pox. *The eyelids were cloſed. He very dexterouſly made an inciſion, by which he took away the cataract, and reſtored ſight to two very fine eyes.*'—I do not believe that the Chineſe ſurgeons would have been equally dexterous; but I can certify the truth of the anecdote mentioned, which was told by a perſon of credit, the ſubject of the operation, and confirmed by his father and mother.'

We would only aſk, if there be in this caſe, as related by our author, the ſlighteſt ſuſpicion of the diſeaſe being a cataract; or, if it were, of the lens being extracted?

In the observations on Van Braam's embassy, our author opposes the idea of the Chinese being the most ancient nation on this globe: he even denies that their union in civil society is of longer duration than that of the Hindoos. In both respects his opinion is well supported.—He considers the Dutch embassy as not having been received with such honours as the English, for which he often hints that the English paid more largely; and to this the superior respect is attributed. We find nothing in the remarks deserving an extract, but shall add a few observations from the conclusion.

'The commerce of the English with China is become the most considerable of that carried on by any company in India; and it will probably increase, till Bengal can furnish the quantity of tea necessary for the English consumption, should the tea-tree flourish there. The freights of China are less rich than those of Bengal, but more numerous. The tea, from habit, is become a necessary beverage to the three kingdoms: and government should encourage the fashion, as it checks the taste for strong liquors, and is much more wholesome.'

'Though we should be able, which is very uncertain, to open the canal of communication between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean; though the navigation should be always free, which is doubtful while the Arabs are in the neighbourhood; though it should not be again obstructed by the clouds of sand which the wind raises in these parts; I believe that the route to India, by the way of the Cape, for the conveyance of merchandise to Europe, will be shorter, less dangerous, and occasion less waste.'

This position our author supports with great judgement.

A sketch of the arts of the Indians and Chinese follows, and contains many curious and interesting remarks. From its miscellaneous nature we cannot abridge it, and our article is too long to admit of farther extracts. On the whole, the reader of this work will be, in turns, pleased and disgusted, instructed and irritated, at the author's occasional weakness and partiality; yet he will not regret the time employed in the perusal; and some parts will form an useful appendage to the narratives of sir G. Staunton and M. Van Braam.

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Memoirs of the National Institute, &c. (*Continued from Vol. XXIX. New. Arr. p.* 493.)

'XXVII. A DISSERTATION on the Genus Phallus. by M. Ventenat.'

Our author received a new species of phallus from America;

and when endeavouring to establish its genus, and ascertain its rank among the other species, he was induced to afford a careful examination to each. He hereby found that botanists are by no means consistent in this part of natural history; that the more modern authors have neglected some very interesting observations made by their predecessors; and the explanation of the genus, as well as its species, is, of course, incomplete.

'I have endeavoured therefore,' he remarks, 'to restore the omissions, to recal the species which had been overlooked, and to establish their mutual relations: I have availed myself of this opportunity to add the new species, which well deserves attention.'

The history of the changes which this family of mushrooms has experienced is curious; but must not detain us: the generic character, as reformed by our author, we shall copy.

'Pedicle either naked or armed with a volva; hat cellular, adhering wholly to the pedicle, or only by its top, often terminated by a close or perforated umbilicus; seeds extremely thin, very numerous, situated in the cellules of the hat.'

The species are divided into those with a naked pedicle and those with a volva: in the former the hat adheres through its whole extent to the pedicle; in the latter the hat is without an umbilicus, or the umbilicus is close. The new species is styled 'indusiatus, stipite tereti, celluloso indusiato pileo brevi reticulato.'

'This beautiful species, (adds our author) which is sufficiently characterised to distinguish it from every other individual of the class, is copiously produced in Dutch Guiana, about 300 paces from the sea, and nearly as far from the left bank of the river of Surinam. It was communicated to me by the elder Vaillant, who discovered it in 1755 on some raised ground which was never overflowed by the highest tides, and is formed of a very fine white sand, covered with a thin stratum of earth. The prodigious quantity of individuals of this species which grow at the same time, the very different periods of their expansion, the brilliancy and the varied shades of their colours, present a prospect truly picturesque. As this mushroom is not attacked, according to Vaillant's observation, by any species of insect, it does not probably exhale the disagreeable smell of the phallus impudicus. As the ground is embellished by numerous individuals of different ages, it is probable that this species is not perpetuated, like the mosillus impudicus, by a tubercle usually found at its root.'

The trivial name is derived from a fringed roll that seems to unite the hat to the pedicle, which expands, and forms a beautiful reticular covering for the shaft.

'XXVIII. A New Determination of the Orbit of Mercury. By Jerome Lalande.'

The difficulty of determining the orbit of Mercury chiefly arises from the difficulty of observing this planet in consequence of its vicinity to the sun. Copernicus never saw it; and when our author observed Mercury on the sun in 1753, he found the tables of Cassini and Halley differed by five hours. In the tables of De la Hire the error was still greater. Our author, in consequence of his observations, proposes to subtract 10″ from the secular motion of Mercury, which then becomes $2^s\ 14^\circ\ 4'\ 100$; and to subtract 17″ from that of the aphelion, which becomes $1^\circ\ 23'\ 28''$ His method we cannot easily abridge. It consists in taking the passages of Mercury over the sun by twos,—that is, one towards the ascending, and another towards the descending node, to ascertain the place of the aphelion in the last and present century. He had antecedently and repeatedly observed Mercury in his aphelion and perihelion, so that he was better enabled to ascertain the rest. The equation of the orbit he found to be 23° 40′, and the motion of the aphelion 56″ annually.

'But I shall soon have occasion (he adds) to present to the Institute an object more important, which has neither been impeded by troubles nor dangers, and which I could scarcely hope to complete when I undertook it: I mean the number and exact determination of the stars down to the ninth magnitude. The number already known amounts to 37,000; and there will probably be 50,000 when the zones are completed so far as the tropic of Capricorn. I have published the result with respect to the principal stars in the "Connoissance des Temps," since the year 1794. In that of 1799 will be found 2000 remarkable stars, hitherto unknown. The principal obligation for this immense labour is due to M. F. Lalande, my relation, and one of our best astronomers. The first observations are found in the Memoirs of the Academy for 1789 and 1790: the rest will appear in the Histoire Céleste, the printing of which will, I trust, soon begin.'

'XXIX. Observations on a simple Idiopathic Atrophy; that is, an Atrophy not preceded by any original or previous Disease, nor accompanied by any accident or any peculiar Symptom. By M. Hallé.'

The case is not unexampled; though rare. In the instance adduced, the constitution advanced rapidly, and decayed equally prematurely. The menses commenced at seven, and began to diminish at seventeen years of age. At twenty-one they had wholly ceased. From this period the patient grew gradually thinner; her strength decayed insensibly, without any evacuation to which the debility might be attributed. She walked

about till within fifteen hours of her death, including the night, and at noon the following day died, complaining only of sleepiness. No disease appeared on opening the body, and no affection of the mind had preceded, though her temper was somewhat timid, and inclined to jealousy.—In atrophy in general we have reason to suppose either a deficiency of absorption or of the application of the aliment. Yet neither seems to have taken place here: what she ate was evidently, from the state of the alvine evacuation, digested, and its alimentary parts absorbed; and, if absorbed, the excess should have promoted some evacuations from the skin, urine, &c. From the appearances on dissection there was reason to suspect an obstruction in the lymphatics; but the concocted motions oppose this idea, and the rest of the lymphatic system was pervious, since there was an absorption of the fat under the skin. The deficiency must have been in the application of the nourishment; for the veins were very full, though the arteries were empty.

'XXX. Observations on a Petrifaction found on Mont Torre Noir, in the Department of the Loire. By M. Daubenton.'

The observations of this veteran in mineralogy, on what has been supposed petrified wood, will in a great degree elucidate the important questions still undetermined respecting the anthracolite of this and other countries. The fossil of Mont Torre Noir was eight or ten feet long, laid parallel to the strata of grit, and fixed in a great degree in the rock. Its bark, it was said, was replaced by a stratum of bitumen, and the texture as well as the knots of the wood were supposed to be very distinct.

So many mistakes had occurred in examining these fossils, that Daubenton long sought for a distinguishing mark of petrified wood; and this criterion he published in a memoir on the pechstein in 1787. In what had ever been wood he could distinguish, in a transverse section, the medullary prolongations: in this fossil none could be discovered; and the knots, though like the eyes in the bark, were, on examination, very different. From the appearance of organisation, and the conviction that it was not a woody substance, our author next supposed it a madrepore, and, on farther examination, actually found many stars of astroites. An astroite is composed of tubes adhering to each other, which contain longitudinal laminæ of a hard calcareous nature: these laminæ extend from one end to the other, and from the centre to the circumference of the tube, leaving, at the centre, and on each side, spaces in which the animal that has produced them resided. The extremities of the tubes appear on the outside of the astroite: the terminations of the laminæ which they contain are obvious, forming rays which somewhat resemble those of a star, whence the name of astroite.

A single animal extends from the centre to the extremity of each tube; and when it is dead, if water, charged with siliceous particles, reach its former habitation, it becomes wholly a stony substance. This petrifaction is of a blackish brown, which undoubtedly arises from the neighbouring bitumen; but it loses the colour in the fire, and assumes a reddish hue. It strikes fire with steel, resists the action of lime, and makes no effervescence with aqua-fortis: in fact, crystals of quartz, composed of two pyramids without a prism, are observable in this petrifaction. Madrepores, and indeed all animal substances, are greatly disposed to petrifaction in the way just described.

'XXXI. A Memoir on the glutinous Part of Wheat. By M. Tessier.'

It is well known, from the experiments of M. Parmentier and others, that the bran of wheat is of an animal nature; and it was the chief object of M. Tessier to inquire how far the proportion of this vegeto-animal matter was influenced by different manures. He found, by some preliminary trials, that the Polish wheat contained much less of this substance than the early, or the American wheat; and that, in general, those whose grain was hard contained less than the softer grains: the glutinous part was also more friable in the former than the latter; and the diminution of weight is, as may be supposed, in the inverse ratio of the proportion obtained.

In our author's experiments the spring wheats possessed a larger proportion of the vegeto-animal matters than the autumnal ones. The plat manured with urine produced the largest quantity; that with night-soil the least. A medium between both was produced by the plats manured by horse, by cow, and pigeons' dung, by the blood of oxen and decayed vegetables, as well as that which was not at all manured: all these produced an equal quantity. Various other inquiries are, in our author's opinion, necessary to complete this subject; particularly to investigate whether other seeds contain this vegeto-animal matter. Rye, barley, and oats, have undoubtedly no portion of it; but no other seeds have been examined. The variation of soils and of exposures also have never been inquired into. Parmentier has observed, that *corn* growing in moist or barren soils contains scarcely one ounce in a pound of this matter: the extremes in our author's experiments were four and six ounces: in the greater number the produce was five ounces in the pound.

'XXXII. On a particular Method of studying Anatomy, employed in the Form of an Essay, containing Inquiries respecting the Teeth and the Bones of the Jaws. By M. Tenon.'

'XXXIII. Second Essay on the Grinding Teeth of the Horse at different Periods.'

The study of the animal structure at different ages is of importance; but with respect to the teeth in the human subject it is in a great measure exhausted: the changes in the teeth of horses are of less consequence; and the whole depends too much on the plates to be abridged with advantage. The paper must be read entire.

It is time, however, to turn to the more pleasing and popular departments of the Institute. We shall examine the second philosophical volume of these transactions, which we have received, in our next Appendix.

Volume I. 'On Literature and Polite Arts' commences with the proposal of two prizes. The subject of the former 'What are the changes which the French language has experienced from the times of Malherbe and Balzac to the present period?' and of the latter, 'What influence has painting ever produced, or can possibly produce, on the manners and government of a free people?' These questions are addressed to the learned of all nations, excepting the members and associates of the Institution, who are prohibited from engaging in the discussion. The disquisitions must be written in French. The former must be sent to the Institute before the 1st Vendimiaire, of the year Six; and the latter before the 1st Nivose of the same year. The prize to the victor will, in either case, consist of a golden medal, of the weight of five hectograms.

A list of printed books, presented by different persons to this class of the Institute, follows; which are scarcely worth noticing, whether in point of individual value or number. We pass on, therefore, to the memoirs themselves.

'I. Remarks on several Articles in the Nouvelle Encyclopédie respecting the Ellipsis and Elliptic Phrases; the Completion and Regulation of Sentences; the Supine and Participle; the Relatives *Qui, Que, Quoi, Lequel*; the Expressions *Qui est-ce?* or *Qu'est-ce?* By Dewailly.'

M. Dewailly is well known as a grammarian and etymologist: his grammar has passed through at least ten editions, and he has supported his opinions by papers occasionally introduced into the 'Nouvelle Encyclopédie,' the 'Mémoires des Trevoux,' and several other periodical journals. In the former publication, however, it appears that he has been opposed by other grammarians who have resisted his principles; and he now corroborates himself by new observations and the occasional concurrence of Dumarsais and Fromant. We cannot enter into the dispute; but it appears to us that the French grammarians are far behind those of the De la Cruscan Academy in Italian literature, and Harris, Lowth, and Tooke, in our own; and that the principal fault of their writers of modern times does not consist so much in defective grammar as in hyperbole

and tumefaction of style. In these respects there is an immense difference indeed between the manner of Malherbes and Balzac and that of the verbose and glaring authors of the present day.

'II. Observations on the Pronoun *Soi.* By M. Lemonnier, Associate Member.'

This paper is, in some measure, connected with the preceding. It was unanimously decided by the French Academy, some few years since, that the pronoun *soi* ought always to be impersonal. M. Lemonnier opposes this dictate, as well from the writings of Pascal, La Bruyère, and Voltaire, as from some happy instances of the equivocal sense the pronoun *lui* must necessarily introduce in certain circumstances when adopted in its stead. We insert the following example for the benefit of those who are now initiating themselves in the knowledge of the French language: 'Jean prie Guillaume son frère d'aller à la foire lui acheter un cheval; il lui remet une somme d'argent pour cette emplette. Guillaume part; dépense l'argent de Jean; mais au lieu d'acheter le cheval pour *lui*, c'est pour *lui* qu'il achete.' To render this passage clear, *soi* should be, doubtless, employed in the place of *lui* in the second instance, notwithstanding the bans of the late Académie Française.

'III. First Memoir on the Necessity of instructing Children who are born Deafly-dumb, and on the Means of communicating with such unfortunate Beings. By M. Sicard.'

This is indeed a most important paper, and ought to be translated at full length into every existing language. It is introduced by some general observations, which we forbear to copy, that we may have room for a short sketch of the method of instruction proposed by the ingenious writer. He first of all places before his pupil several simple articles well known in common life, as a key, a knife, a watch, a pencil: he exhibits the various uses of these instruments before him; and when he is well acquainted with their uses by the exercise of his vision, he gradually informs him that he has occasion for them, by representing the action they produce. From this simple sign of the fingers alone he advances to drawing, and delineates these different instruments on paper. The object and the sign of the object hereby mutually represent each other: by touching the object he expresses his want of the drawing; by touching the drawing he expresses his want of the object. Signs are thus made the representations and symbols of things that are absent, and pave the way most commodiously for the knowledge of letters. This in reality is acquired by writing the letters, by which any of the above signs are spelt, against the drawings or signs themselves, and exciting and renewing the attention of the pupil to them till he is acquainted as deeply with their representative power as with that of the drawings

or hieroglyphics. To acquaint him with the order in which they occur in the alphabet, and with the difference between vowels and consonants, he is gradually taught the idea that the former have a binding or connecting power over the latter, without the exercise of which they could never be united into words, or become symbolical of things. The letters of the alphabet are therefore, on this account, divided by M. Sicard into *connecting* and *connected*, as terms far more familiar and easy to be comprehended by his pupil than the terms vowels and consonants; the power of each vowel or connecting letter is discovered to him by frequent reference to a variety of words in which it occurs, and the meaning of which is first of all taught by introducing the things for which they stand, or their representative drawings. Some deviation is also made in the accustomed order of the consonants of the alphabet, for the sake of greater simplicity and expedition in learning: the pupil is instructed, in the first instance, to regard P and B as letters whose power, in pronunciation, is nearly similar; C, Q, K, and G, are, in like manner, regarded as characters of the same family, and between which it is not worth while at first to make any essential distinction; the same is represented between F and V, M and N, S and Z; by which means the initiating consonants for the deafly-dumb pupil are reduced from nineteen to about seven or eight only, the powers and characters of which, being few in number, and all of them widely distinct from each other, may be easily explained and comprehended. In a manner somewhat similar, and with equal ease, he is taught the science of numbers. The whole system is detailed at sufficient length, and evinces much profound attention to this important subject, combined with an uncommon share of ingenuity and contrivance.

'IV. Strictures on the Hermes of Harris, as translated by Thurot. By M. Sicard.'

The Hermes of the late elegant and erudite James Harris, esq. is so well known to the majority of our readers, that the present paper need not detain us. The only part of the Hermes translated by M. Thurot, however, is the dialogue on grammar; and of this, again, the only parts examined in the present strictures are the first and second books, for not a syllable is extended to the third. We shall only say, that, upon the whole, M. Sicard regards the original as an admirable performance, and Thurot's version as altogether worthy of it. We learn with pleasure from the public papers that a new and splendid edition of the works of this accomplished philologist is now in the press, under the immediate inspection of his son lord Malmesbury.

'V. Memoir on the Grammatical Proposition. By Urbain Domergue.'

This is one of the longest papers in the collection. It is preceded by a proem or introduction, in which the author takes a cursory view of the origin of language: its absolute impossibility in a state of solitude; its rudeness and barbarism on the first congregation of society; its augmentation from the exercise of the different passions and feelings of mankind; and its consummation from the legacies of genius, sensibility, and a fertile imagination. A distinction is here attempted also between *grammatists* and *grammarians*, which in some measure resembles that which has of late been introduced among ourselves between *philosophists* and *philosophers*, the former term being applied, in both instances, to those who have but a shallow and conceited knowledge of the subject to which they pretend. We also meet with the term *purist*, invented, but we think not very happily, to characterise the mere verbal critic, or rather quibbler. The memoir next follows, and is divided into four sections. The first treats of the grammatical proposition, and its constituent parts. Every proposition, in its most simple form, is supposed to consist of three distinct ideas; the object of judgement, or thing to be decided upon, res judicanda, which is here denominated the *judicand*; the medium of judgement, or thing by which we judge, denominated the *judicator*; and the thing judged of, res judicata, denominated, in consequence, the *judicat*. To explain this doctrine, the author advances a variety of propositions, of which we will select the first, viz. '*the rose is beautiful*:' and, in this instance, the substantive *the rose* is the *judicand*, or thing to be judged of; the verb *is* forms the *judicator* or medium of judgement; and the term *beautiful* is the *judicat*, the thing judged or decided upon. The judicand we are moreover told is always a substance, a being, or a thing; the judicator is always the verb *to be*, or some one of its modifications; while the judicat is generally an attribute, as large, small, learned, ignorant. This division is not very happy or perspicuous; our own countryman Locke is far clearer in his definition and ideas, and ought to have been consulted by M. Domergue, though his name does not once occur in the memoir; nor do we by any means prefer the species of logic here attempted to be introduced to that of MM. Dumarsais and Beauzée, whose theory it is designed to supercede.

The second section is devoted to the analysis of propositions; and pursuing the same plan, M. Domergue descries three separate propositions in the following example, which is the first he offers: 'Every virtue is comprehended in justice; you are just; you are a man of virtue:' and each of these three propositions he again divides into the three segments of judicand, judicator, and judicat; in the second instance assigning the office of judicator to the term *comprehended*, to which the ex-

pression *in justice*, to continue his own language, is *an indirect complement* or completion. In the third instance his analysis is the same; here *man* is the judicat, and *of virtue* its indirect complement.

The third section developes the different kinds of propositions. These are divided into four classes; the *primordial*, or, as it has hitherto been called by Condillac and other French grammarians, the *principal*; the *completive conjunctive proposition* (proposition complétive prochaine); the *completive disjunctive* (complétive éloignée); which two latter have often been denominated incidental propositions; and the *proposition implicit*. The *primordial proposition* is that which constitutes the chief subject of a sentence, and with which it usually commences; the phrase *conjunctive complement* is applied to every word necessary to the completion of some other word to which it appertains; and *disjunctive complement* to any word which may be detached from another with which it is connected, without destroying its grammatical sense. The fourth, or *implicit proposition*, is that which incloses in itself, by its own proper power, the three segments of every proposition, to wit, the judicand, the judicator, and the judicat, without openly expressing either of them. It is that which has generally been denominated the *adjunctive* proposition, as appertaining to some other; and in reality means nothing more than the interjection of our English grammarians—*Ah! my father, I once more behold you*. In this exclamation the implicit proposition of our author is totally confined to the interjection *Ah!* which implies *I am happy, I am overjoyed*.

Section the fourth gives a general application of the antecedent systems; and selects for this purpose Contel's beautiful idyll on a flock of sheep, as retouched by madame Déshoulières, and which has previously been selected for a similar purpose by Dumarsais. Upon the whole this is an elaborate and accurate paper, and certainly superior to the grammatical publications which it opposes. In many respects, however, its divisions are too trifling and minute, and the reader, instead of being enlightened, is eclipsed and bewildered. It is to be followed in some future time by an additional memoir on the classification of words; but this paper is not yet completed.

'VI. Report on the Fragment of an ancient Monument sent to the National Institute, by Citizen Axhard, Conservator of the Museum at Marseilles.'

The committee to whom the preparation of this report was intrusted have laudably discharged the duties of their office. The fragment referred to appears to have been, as the committee themselves imagined, the basis either of an incense cup, or of a quiver of arrows. The inscription upon it is ΘΕΑ. ΔΙΚΤΥΑ. ΔΗΜΟϹ. ΜΑΣΣ. and is interpreted by the follow-

ing verſion—' To the Dictyan goddeſs—the people of Marſeilles.' Δικτυα the committee conceive to have been an abbreviation for Δικτυννα, which was unqueſtionably a title of Diana; and, admitting this to be a fact, of which we have ſome doubt, but are prevented by our limits from entering into the argument, the reſt is clear and perſpicuous. The goddeſs Diana was at one period the favourite deity of the Marſeillois:—this is obvious from a variety of paſſages in Strabo and other writers. The ſurname of Dictynna appears to have been beſtowed upon Diana firſt of all in the iſland of Crete; though we do not think ſhe derived it from the idle fable of the nymph Britomartis, referred to by Callimachus in his hymn to this divinity: from Crete the worſhip of this deity paſſed into Phocis in Achaia, and Phocœa in Iönia; and from this latter city it was carried to Marſeilles, the earlier inhabitants of this ſeaport being only a colony of Phocœans.

"VII. Obſervations on Magic, by M. Le Blond.'

It appears aſtoniſhing to the writer of this memoir that magic ſhould ever have been admitted as a ſcience, or accredited by men of liberal education; and more ſo ſtill that philoſophers of the reputation of Bayle and La Bruyère ſhould have ſpoken of it as a ſubject of doubt and probability. He apprehends theſe authors to have heſitated in their determination from the belief which is ſaid to have been given to it by Pythagoras, Empedocles, Democritus, and Plato, who, according to Pliny, undertook long voyages for the expreſs purpoſe of being initiated into its doctrines: and he properly, therefore, inquires into the magic of antiquity, to determine whether it were not a ſcience very different from that which bears the name in modern times.—The magic, he obſerves, of which Plato and other Grecian philoſophers ſpeak, had nothing more for its object than religion and religious myſteries. The word itſelf is deduced from the language of the ancient Perſians, among whom the *magi* ſuſtained preciſely the ſame character as the philoſophers among the Greeks, tha ſages among the Romans, the druids among the Gauls, and the prophets or prieſts among the Egyptians:—in a word, they were the miniſters and depoſitaries of religious knowledge. The ſcience of the magi is reported by Pliny to have been introduced by Zoroaſtres. But who was Zoroaſtres?—and here we meet with a ſimilar attempt to overthrow, or rather to *fabuliſe*, the hiſtory of this Perſian philoſopher, which has lately been made by ſeveral diſtinguiſhed characters of our own country, with reſpect to many of the ancient philoſophers, and almoſt all the ancient heroes of Greece. Upon this ſubject we cannot enter now, but we ſhall ſoon have an opportunity of diſcuſſing it at large, and ſhall probably again revert to this part of the preſent memoir. The original magic of Perſia, however, we

agree with our author, was founded on the relations which actually subsist between this terrestrial globe and the heavenly bodies that surround it, and, being derived from observation and the study of nature, contained nothing in it contrary to the dictates of reason. But after this period the heavenly bodies were peopled with gods; intelligences and genii were supposed to reside in the constellations: they were imagined, and from interested motives the professors of this science began to teach the populace so, to possess an influence over natural events; and horoscopes were immediately pretended to be calculated, as well with respect to whole cities as to individuals. Hence pure and rational magic dwindled into the most absurd and ridiculous superstition. In process of time magic was divided into theurgy and sorcery or witchcraft. Theurgy was esteemed the science of purifying the soul, and enabling it to hold an intimate commerce or autopsy with heaven itself, and occasionally with being honoured with the possession of miraculous powers. Sorcery or goetic magic was confined to a supposed commerce with evil dæmons, who never invested their votaries with miraculous authorities but to commit mischief. Both these opposite sciences, but especially theurgic magic, appear to have been of high antiquity; yet it was principally towards the third age of the Christian æra that they resurged with additional splendor. Magicians of both kinds were repudiated by Porphyry and Proclus as well as Augustin; but it was the sorcerists whom they principally anathematised; and at this period they began to appropriate the term δαιμων, dæmon, to goetic magic alone, which antecedently hereto was equally applied to good and evil genii.

Among the Greeks and Romans the division of this science was somewhat different. In reality it admitted of a variety of branches; but the two principal were *enchantment* and *divination*. The former was usually performed, first, by a *carmen*, or string of words combined in some peculiar measure which it was unlawful to vary or transpose; or, secondly, by an *incantamentum*, which differed from the carmen or metrical charm, and consisted of an inarticulate mutter: the Hebrew synonym לחש, as well as the Greek Το γοητευμα, Ἡ γοητεια, equally well express this muttering or *mussitatio*. The incantamentum was, moreover, always applied to some evil transaction; but the carmen applied to either good or evil. *Divination* was another grand branch of magic among the ancients, and, though equally destitute of foundation, was perhaps of more extensive influence. It determined by oracles, the entrails of beasts, and frequently by casting lots; and absurd as this last mode of decision more particularly must appear, it is reported by Cicero, Suetonius, and many others, to have been often employed on the most important events, and confided in with the most im-

plicit reliance. Upon the whole, this is a well-written and agreeable paper; and those who wish for a fuller account of the history and science of magic may consult the more voluminous and elaborate work of M. Auberive upon this subject.

'VIII. Epistle against Celibacy, by M. Ducis.'

Those who have an indifferent opinion of the morality at present professed in France would do well to peruse this poetic production, which is founded upon many of the best principles of religion and virtue, and recommends a conduct which cannot but produce happiness in every state. The poetry is always easy, and often bold and nervous. In a short poem like the present, dedicated to ethic subjects, we cannot however but protest against the impropriety of filling up whole lines with the names of persons alone. In epic poetry such a kind of metrical catalogue may occasionally be allowed, but we cannot admit the necessity of introducing it in the present case:

> 'Déja sont descendus Agamemnon, Ulysse,
> Achille, Menelas, et Teucer, et Nestor.'

And again, shortly afterwards,

> 'Priam, Hécube, Hector, Cassandre, Polyxène,
> Pour ta cause égorgés, ou mourant dans leur chaîne.'

The remainder of the poetical contribution consists of an 'Ode to Enthusiasm,' and the first canto of a poem entitled 'The Vigil of Parnassus,' by M. Le Brun; the 'Trial of the Senate of Capua' versified from Livy, the 'Hospital for Fools,' a Persian tale designed to succeed the 'One Thousand and one Nights,' and the 'Miller of Sans-Souci,' by M. Andrieux; two fables by M. Monvel the elder; and two, containing advice from an old man to young people, by M. Lemonnier. In all these we meet with nothing worthy of particular notice: the general character of the poetry is ease and sprightliness, but it seldom rises to superiority of merit. The 'Ode to Enthusiasm,' and the 'Hospital for Fools,' have afforded us the greatest entertainment; the latter is compiled in a vein of genuine humour; and the former, although too frequently bombast or prosaic, has occasionally a bold and dignified flight. Such is the comparison of the fire of genius to a comet, which to the vulgar appears deviating in its course from the common laws of nature, and big with conflagration and ruin to the celestial vault, but whose apparent disorder to the sage who has studied it exhibits an harmonious effort to people the desert part of the heavens with additional systems. And such also is the following comparison of the same power:

> 'Tel on voit, dans l'empire aride
> Des fils basanés de Memnon,

Le Nil, de son berceau liquide,
S'échapper sans gloire et sans nom;
Du haut des rocs ses flots jaillissent,
E quelque temps s'ensevelissent
Parmi des gouffres ignorés;
Mais tout-à-coup à la lumière
Il renaît pour Memphis entière,
Et ses flots en sont adores.'

So where the sun his torrid flame
O'er Memnon's tawny children flings,
Th 'inglorious Nile, devoid of name,
First from his liquid cradle springs:
From rock to rock his wild waves bound—
And, tumbling oft down gulfs profound,
His steps are traced no more:
Yet soon, where Memphis spreads her sway,
A countless flood he meets the day,
And countless realms adore.

The daring use of the word *precipitate*, in the following couplet of the same ode, we cannot approve of:—it is as incorrect as it is bold.

'Et Montgolfier, fuyant la terre,
Se *précipite* dans les cieux.'

And from earth Montgolfier driven,
Precipitates himself to heaven.

(To be continued.)

Annales de Chymie. Vol. XXXI.

Annals of Chemistry. (Continued from Vol. XXIX. New Arr. p. 515.)

AS we approach the present period, we shall occasionally indulge ourselves with a somewhat fuller account of papers, which offer discoveries, if not entirely new, yet little known; and shall, as usual, omit the notice of English works, or the casual glances at the labours of the chemists of this or other kingdoms, unless they afford a promise of new and important information.

The first article is by M. Vauquelin, entitled 'Reflexions on the Decomposition of Muriat of Soda by Oxyd of Lead.' We know that the former is decomposed by the latter, but the mode in which this is effected is little known. The theories hitherto adduced, to account for the effect, are proved to be trifling; and our author, in his examinations of the facts, by

new experiments, ſhows that the litharge becomes a muriat of lead with an exceſs of oxyd; that cauſtic alkalis do not decompoſe this ſalt, but diſſolve it only; and that the litharge decompoſes common ſalt, in conſequence of the affinity of the muriat of lead for the oxyd. The exceſs of oxyd communicates a yellow colour to the muriat of lead thus produced, renders it almoſt inſoluble in water, and unites with the nitrous acid, leaving the common metallic neutral, or in the ſimple union of the lead with the muriatic acid. The oxyd of lead, therefore, decompoſes common ſalt by a double affinity, viz. by the united attractions of the oxyd for the muriatic acid, and of the muriat of lead for an exceſs of oxygen. This evinces why ſo much litharge is required to ſeparate the ingredients of the muriat of ſoda, ſince a large proportion of the oxygen is required to form the oxydated metallic ſalt.

M. Scherer's miſcellaneous communications ſcarcely offer an intereſting remark. He ſpeaks of lime aſſuming a cryſtalline form in the hands of M. Trommſdorf; of M. Steinhauſer's inquiry into the influence of the different gaſes on magnetiſm; on the ſmell of nitrous acid on breaking ſugar*, which he explains from its attracting part of the oxygen of the air, leaving the azote and oxygen in due proportions to form this acid; and on the works of M. Bucholz; but does not enlarge on either ſubject.

M. Taſſaert has communicated an intereſting memoir on the Juices (Séves) of different Trees, viz. the Ulmus Campeſtris, Fagus Sylveſtris, Carpinus Sylveſtris, Betula Alba, and the Mulberry Tree, collected at different periods. The firſt contains a large proportion of acetite of pot-aſh, a much leſs quantity of vegetable matter, and a ſmall proportion of carbonat of lime. The fluid, collected at a ſubſequent period, contained a much ſmaller quantity of ſalts and a greater of vegetable matter. We ſhall add our author's remarks on this ſubject.

'It were to be wiſhed that numerous obſervations would prove that theſe proportions were inverted, as the vegetable advances to perfection. We might hence conclude that the acetite of pot-aſh and the carbonat of lime were decompoſed by the vital action of the vegetable, and that their carbone and hydrogen aſſiſted in the compoſition of the vegetable matter.' This our author thinks is ſupported 'by the wood and bark of the elm containing a leſs proportion of thoſe ſalts than its fluids.' By longer continuance either in a vegetating ſtate or that of reſt in a phial, the vegetable matter becomes frozen, and at laſt of an alkaline nature. Hence, in the pro-

* On examination we have found this ſmell very diſtinguiſhable.

greſs, the acids are deſtroyed, and the alkali only remains, which is often obvious in the diſeaſes of the tree. The juices of the beech are more compounded, conſiſting of an acid in a ſeparate ſtate, a calcareous ſalt, an alkaline ſalt, the gallic acid, the tanning principle, and a mucous extractive matter. Thus it appears that the beech may be ſucceſsfully employed by the tanner. The other juices contain occaſionally a ſeparate acid, different neutrals, and an extractive matter: that of the carpinus afforded a ſmall proportion of copper, that of the betula alba a colouring matter, that of the mulberry tree nitrat of pot-aſh, as well as acetite of pot-aſh.

M. Chaptal's account of the method of fertiliſing the mountains in the Cevennes is curious, and ſhows how neceſſity will, at times, render the moſt infertile regions productive, though, perhaps, the exertions of theſe mountaineers are not equalled by the patient induſtry of the Chineſe in ſimilar ſituations. The inhabitants of the Cevennes raiſe walls at the bottoms of the mountains acroſs the termination of the gullies, which ſuffer the water to eſcape, and retain the ſoil. Parallel ones are erected at different heights; and thus nature forms the hanging gardens which ſupply the mountaineer with the food which his attentive induſtry has ſo juſtly merited. The receding ſtrata of the calcareous rocks are by a ſimilar method formed into various plats of a ſmaller ſize.

An abſtract of two very extenſive memoirs on the Urine are contained in the XXXIſt and XXXIId volume. The firſt immediately follows the article of M. Chaptal juſt noticed; but we ſhall examine the whole. It is however with regret that we obſerve little eſſential or uſeful information added to what Rouelle and others had before communicated; but it is probable that the ſubject has been already exhauſted. The minute ſcrutiny of modern chemiſtry has indeed diſcovered many ingredients of little importance: the principal, however, is ſtyled by our author the 'urée;' we ſhall call it the eſſential ſalt of urine. The newly-diſcovered ingredients are phoſphat of magneſia, urat of ammonia, formed during the decompoſition of the urine, albumen, and jelly; oxalic acid, which is chiefly a morbid production, and a ſmall quantity of flinty matter, which occurs but rarely. The benzoic acid, which is traced chiefly in children, was diſcovered, in a great meaſure, by the younger Rouelle.

'The particular matter of urine, to which its characteriſtic properties are owing, and which is its moſt eſſential ingredient, as imparting the peculiar colour, ſmell, and taſte, rendering it capable of being converted into ammonia and into carbonic or acetous acids, forms $\frac{1}{23}$ of its ingredients. Rouelle has miſtaken it for a ſoapy extract; but to this is owing the

almoſt complete cryſtalliſation of the urine, when evaporated to the conſiſtence of a ſyrup; its ſolid and cryſtalline form, on adding concentrated nitrous acid, as well as the modified cryſtalliſations of the muriats of ſoda and ammonia, where the forms of the cryſtals are in ſome degree converted. This animal matter, which we call urée (eſſential ſalt of urine), will be the ſubject of a ſeparate memoir, deſigned as a continuation of the preſent:—it is highly intereſting to phyſiology and the practice of medicine.'

The ſecond memoir, which we ſhall now purſue, occurs in the XXXIId volume: it is confined to the examination of the eſſential ſalt of urine, and entitled 'A Second Memoir on the Natural, Chemical, and Medical Hiſtory of the Urine, particularly on the peculiar Subſtance to which its Properties are owing.' The hiſtory of the labours of former chemiſts on this ſubject is very intereſting; and the particular examination of the urée, by M. Fourcroy, diſplays all the minute addreſs of a moſt able chemiſt: to follow it cloſely would not be intereſting to the general reader, ſo that we ſhall give conciſely the ſubſtance of our author's concluſions. Our knowledge, however, of this ſubſtance, he remarks, is only commencing: we have yet attained its analyſis alone, and muſt, at a future period, examine the compoſitions formed with this ſalt and various other ſubſtances. Its more obvious properties we need not enlarge on. It is ſufficient to remark, that, with different proportions of water, urine of almoſt every kind may be imitated. The eſſential ſalt is eaſily deſtroyed by a violent heat, producing a large proportion of carbonat of ammonia, amounting to more than $\frac{2}{3}$ of its weight, leaving but a ſmall proportion of coal, with about $\frac{1}{6}$ of muriat of ammonia. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that this ſalt is not, in recent urine, of an alkaline, but rather of an acid nature. The ammonia is formed by delay, and during the decompoſition; ſo that, after ſome time, all the ſalts are ammoniacal, and the urée deliqueſces rapidly on expoſure to the atmoſphere. It is alſo highly fermentable when mixed with animal gluten.

In its own nature it contains a larger proportion of azote than any other fluid of the human body; but the modern chemiſt will neceſſarily remark that this is ſaying only what Boerhaave and others have formerly obſerved, that the urine is highly animaliſed, for in the proportion of azote conſiſts the chief diſtinction between vegetable and animal ſubſtances. Our author approaches to a view ſomewhat more comprehenſive, when he remarks that the lungs are the emunctories of the carbonic acid, the liver of the hydrogen, and the kidneys of the azote; but even in this he ſteps forward only in the farther and more complete analyſis of fluids, which, from the

time of Dr. Hales and Dr. M'Clurg, have been known to be discharged from these different organs. Perhaps, when he compares the analysis of the calculus with that of the essential salt of urine, he may add to our knowledge, and we shall then see that the disease is owing to a defect of animalisation, for the acid of the calculus is not changed to an azotic compound by the animal process. This is no more than the sagacious and comprehensive mind of Cullen has already anticipated.—But to return to the particulars of the analysis.

Of 217 parts of the true urinary matter, 200 are changed into carbonat of ammonia, ten are disengaged in the form of carbonated hydrogen, and seven are left in that of a coaly residuum. When reduced to their component parts, 100 parts of the essential salt of urine contain 39.5 of oxygen, 32.5 of azote, 14.7 of carbone, and 13.3 of hydrogen; but about eleven parts of the oxygen and two of hydrogen are employed in the composition of the water in the salt; so that the azote is the most copious ingredient.

In the application of these remarks to medicine and the arts, we see nothing that was not known before these experiments were instituted,—not even a hint which will contribute to elucidate a fact either in physiology or practice. That the thick mucous urine is owing to an ammoniacal salt formed by the retention of the excrementitious fluid in the bladder, which precipitates the albumen, is not true. This discharge is from the mucous glands, in consequence of irritation; and that it is not owing to the cause supposed by our author, is sufficiently obvious, from its occurring most commonly when the irritation is frequent, and the quantity to be discharged small; of course when there is no accumulation in the bladder, and no time to form ammoniacal salts. It occurs too in calculous cases, when the essential salt of urine is of an acid nature.

The next article we meet with is also continued in another part of the volume, and will detain us somewhat longer than usual. It is entitled 'An Abstract of the Procès-verbal of Experiments made in the Polytechnic School in the Year 1797 and 1798, on the Combustion of the Diamond,' by M. Guyton. The vast and comprehensive mind of Newton saw in the diamond a combustible substance, in consequence of its peculiar refraction; but few would have expected this very brilliant body to be what it appears, in consequence of analysis, a kind of charcoal, with a larger proportion of oxygen. The improbability that a substance with a less proportion of oxygen should be more readily inflammable than one with a larger proportion, was an objection which occurred to our author. In reality, however, the readiness of combustion consists rather in the intimate union of the inflammable with

the other ingredients than in its quantity; and many inſtances occur, particularly that of plumbago, where the rapidity of combuſtion is by no means in proportion to the quantity of oxygen. Thus alſo turf, which burns feebly without any preparation, is a ſtrong combuſtible when coaked: it is then, as our author obſerves, reduced to the firſt degree of oxydation, when the oxygen in ſyntheſis is with difficulty combined, and readily as well as rapidly ſeparated.

The product of the combuſtion of the diamond, or of its combination with oxygen to the point of ſaturation, is carbonic acid without a reſiduum. It differs in this from charcoal, as requiring a heat of 2765°, inſtead of 188, for its inflammation; and, inſtead of ſupporting its own inflammation, the continuation of the action of heat is eſſentially neceſſary, as well as a larger proportion of oxygen. There are many bodies in an intermediate ſtate between the diamond and charcoal, particularly the plumbago, the anthracolite of Werner, and coaly reſiduums, difficult to burn, &c.: and theſe have alſo the ſingular property of acting like ſilver in the galvanic battery, an office which neither the diamond nor charcoal can perform. The diamond, in its deoxygenation, aſſumes firſt the colour of lead, and is then in the ſtate of plumbago and anthracolite; then that of charcoal.

It may appear ſingular why the diamond ſhould be of ſuch rare occurrence, ſince its component parts are ſo common. To this no anſwer can be given, but that ſome ſimilar inſtances are to be found. The adamantine ſpar, for inſtance, is as rare as the diamond, though only an aluminous earth; and iron, never found in perfection, has ſcarcely ever been diſcovered in a metallic ſtate.

In ſubſequent experiments the diamond was found to reduce iron to ſteel, by cementation, and even to deoxygenate ſulphur; in fact, it was brought to the ſecond degree of oxygenation, reſembling plumbago, and acted in every experiment like it. Yet, however, ſome doubts may be entertained of the truth of the whole analyſis. The diamond is compared with charcoal; but it is not conſidered that charcoal contains light as an ingredient. Unleſs the flame is carefully confined the coaly nature is deſtroyed, and it is watched during the proceſs with anxious care, for this purpoſe. In the analyſis of the diamond, the ſolar rays, or the ſtrongeſt white heat, is employed; and it is conſidered only as heat: yet if light *be* a chemical body, may it not, in theſe proceſſes, be combined, and thus contribute to bring the foſſil to a ſtate of charcoal. The ſubject, at leaſt, requires a reviſion with theſe views; and we are ſomewhat ſurpriſed that they ſhould have been neglected by a chemiſt of credit and character, whoſe well-earned fame has rendered him particularly conſpicuous in this department.

We return now to the XXXIst volume; and shall, in future, pursue the articles as usual, in their order. M. Gazeran's observations on the treatment of iron ores with coak offer nothing which can interest an English chemist, in whose country the process recommended is so common; and from the sixteenth volume of Brugnatelli's Annali di Chimica we can extract nothing very interesting. One of his correspondents speaks vaguely of the animalisation of flax by boiling it in lye which had been employed in whitening oyster-shells. A fugitive colour was in this way rendered permanent.

Another memoir of M. Hassenfratz, on Areömetry, follows. It is on the desiccation of salts, and was suggested by the different results of the experiments of MM. Kirwan, Wenzel, and Bergman, on the proportions of the component parts of different neutrals. The difference, in M. Hassenfratz' opinion, arises from the quantity of water which they sometimes unavoidably contain; for even exsiccating them in a stove is not sufficient to bring them to a uniform dryness. He proposes therefore to ascertain the specific gravity of each, when dissolved in a given or indifferent quantities of water. The solid contents are thus easily known, and proper allowance may be made for the fluid.

M. Klaproth, in his chemical examination of the spinel, a species of ruby, thinks that it should, from its colour, be rather classed among the hyacinths, as it resembles them, according to the description of Pliny and other ancient authors. Modern crystallographers have arranged the true ruby of Pegu among the sapphires, as a red variety, and made a new genus of the spinel. This precious stone is of many different colours, all of which seem to be owing to iron, in different states: its specific gravity is about 3.580, and its chief ingredients alumine and flint, in the respective proportions of .74 and .15.

An abstract from the report of 'The Methods employed to extract Antimony from its Ores,' by M. Hassenfratz, follows, but is incapable of abridgment, as well as that which succeeds by M. Bouillon Lagrange, viz. 'An Abstract of Two Reports made to the Society of Emulation at Rouen, on some Experiments respecting the Consumption of Wood in Dyers' and other Furnaces, compared with the Consumption in one of a new Construction.' The saving appears almost equal to five sevenths.

M. Scherer's Gossipings, for they deserve no better title, in his letter to M. Guyton, scarcely furnish a single subject of remark, except to enforce his proposal, a very useful one, of a publication containing the synonyms of minerals. The mineralogical dictionary, which we some time since sug-

gested, would answer every purpose. The Dictionary of Mineralogy, by M. Reuss, of which an account is given in the subsequent article, professing to contain all the mineralogical terms in the German, Latin, French, Swedish, Danish, Russian, and Hungarian languages, will by no means answer this purpose, and it is also incomplete. It is little more than a Latin and German dictionary; in the other branches, the names are few, and the explanations imperfect.

An abstract of a memoir by M. Felix on the Method of Dyeing, and the Manufacture, &c. of the Red Cottons of Greece (the Adrianople Reds), is interesting in other views besides those of the chemist. M. Felix's Account of the Commerce of the Levant has appeared in an English dress; but, as we have not yet seen that work, we know not whether the little interesting details of the present memoir occur in it. We shall not, therefore, pass it over.

The colour is imparted by the ali-zari, a species of madder, but only used when it has attained a greater age than is allotted to it in Europe, and is dried with greater care. The beauty of the colour consists in the management during its last immersion, in an alkalised bath. When the colour has assumed its greatest brilliancy, the dyer immediately withdraws it, and prefers burning his hand to the least delay beyond the moment which he has waited for with the most anxious attention.

The principal manufactures of the red spun cotton, established in Greece, are to be met with in Thessaly, at Baba, Rapsani, Tournavos, Larissa, Pharsala, and all the villages on the declivity of Ossa and Pelion. These mountains may be considered as the alembics, that distil the vapours which eternally surround the head of Mount Olympus, and distribute them to the beautiful valleys around. Among these, Tempe has always been distinguished for its umbrageous trees and limpid streams. The waters, from their purity, are highly proper for the dyer's purpose, and they supply numerous manufactures, the chief of which is Ambélakia.

Poets have never seen Tempe and Olympus in these views, which are more interesting in advanced age than in the enthusiasm of youth. Ambélakia is a very flourishing spot, having trebled its number of inhabitants in the last fifteen years; and now contains 4000 souls, who are employed wholly in dyeing, and 'live like a swarm of bees in a hive.'

'Neither the vices nor the languor of idleness are known in this spot: the hearts of the Ambélakiates are pure, and their countenances serene. Slavery, which blights the harvests on the banks of the Peneus at their feet, has not ascended to their cottages. No Turk is permitted to dwell among them; and they are governed, like their ancestors, by their

own magistrates. Twice the furious mussulmen of Larissa, jealous of their ease and happiness, attempted to scale the mountains and pillage their habitations: twice they were repelled by crowds, who quitted the vat to assume the musket.

'Every hand, even those of children, is employed in the dye-houses of Ambélakia; and, while the men dye the cotton, the women prepare and spin it. In the whole district they are not acquainted with the spinning-wheel; the work is executed with the spindle; and the thread is, of course, less strong, round, and equable, but more soft, silky, and tenacious. It is less brittle and more durable, bleaches more easily, and dyes more completely. It is pleasing to see the women of Ambélakia, each armed with her rock, and gossiping on the seats at their doors;—but the pleasure is instantaneous; on the appearance of a stranger, they immediately retire and hide themselves; showing, like Galatea, in their precipitate flight, their wish to fly and to be seen:

'Et fugit ad salices, et se cupit ante videri.'

'The eye can only catch a glance of these women; but it sees with admiration the bold and elegant Grecian shapes, which have served as models for some of the most beautiful statues in the world.'

'For my own part, I shall never forget what I saw in my first journey to Ambélakia and its neighbourhood—A numerous population, living wholly on the produce of its manufactures, and displaying, among the rocks of Ossa, the interesting union of a family of friends and brothers; the charming institution, banished by the Jesuits to the forests of Paraguay, transplanted, as by enchantment, to the precipices and the valleys of Tempe; the ancient Greek prejudices subdued; the taste for trifling subtleties replaced by a love of solid studies; national vanity checked by generous sentiments; every grand and liberal idea flourishing on a soil devoted, during twenty centuries, to slavery; the original Greek character sprouting with its former luxuriance in the midst of the caverns and torrents of Pelion;—in a word, all the virtues and all the talents of the ancients rising again in a corner of modern Greece.'

The rest of the memoir consists of commercial details, which will not be interesting; and, in the reports of D'Arcet, Desmarets, and Chaptal, on this subject, we find that the art has already been introduced, by Grecian workmen, into France, where the methods have been simplified, and the colours improved.

Chromate of iron has been discovered in the department of

Var; and its analyſis is communicated by M. Taſſaert. It appears an irregular maſs, of a deep brown, and metallic ſplendor. It is of a mean hardneſs, and its ſpecific gravity 4·0326. With the blow-pipe it melts with difficulty; and, when fuſed with borax, aſſumes a dirty green hue. It contains .63 of chronic acid, and about .36 of oxyd of iron.

An account and abſtract of a new elementary work in chemiſtry follows. It is entitled 'Chymie Optomatique; or, the Art of learning this Science with Eaſe, by the Aſſiſtance of Tables, Figures, and ſymbolical Characters, ſo as to ſeize at a Glance the Relations of the Compoſition and Decompoſition of Bodies.' The firſt part, on minerals, is alone publiſhed; and we are not ſo much intereſted by the account of M. Fourcroy, as to induce us to enlarge on the ſubject, or recommend the work. The author is M. F. G. Courrejolles.

M. Guyton's 'New Enquiries into the Affinities of Earths for each other, in the dry or humid Way,' are in ſome meaſure new. They were ſuggeſted, he remarks, by obſerving that flint and lime, though infuſible ſeparately, yet, when united, melt into a maſs, whoſe ingredients are not to be ſeparated but by chemical agents. The manufacture of porcelain would however have offered the ſame leſſon. He firſt examines their action in the humid way, and finds that earths diſſolved in water alkalis, or the ſame acid, according as each is capable of ſolution by the different menſtrua, ſhow a power which tends to an union, by ſeparating them from their reſpective menſtrua; and, according to the laws of elective attraction, is capable in one, and impotent with reſpect to the other. Thus barytes and ſtrontian poſſeſs very different powers of attraction for lime; and there is a ſtriking conſiſtency in the reſult of experiments with the ſame earths united to different menſtrua. Of ten experiments with earthy muriats, in four only were the ſigns of repulſion evident; and in two of theſe it was doubtful. In the dry way, lime, barytes, and ſtrontian, reſemble alkalis, and exhibit a ſtrong attraction for flint and alumine; ſo that lime ſeparates flint from pot-aſh, and joins alumine at the inſtant when the ſulphuric acid abandons it. Theſe earths act on oils, ſoaps, and animal matters, like alkalis, but differ from them in many reſpects, chiefly in the inſolubility of the compounds. In general, the union of earths reſembles ſtrongly that of metals: neither ſeems the diſſolvant, but they mutually attract each other.

M. Prieur's 'Hiſtorical Account of the Invention of, and firſt Attempts to form, Parachutes,' conſiſts of the republication of a letter of Montgolfier, where this idea is clearly explained, and followed by a minute detail of the conſtruction, and its foundation.

M. Deyeux' 'Report concerning M. Le Blanc's Ideas re-

ſpecting Nickel' are deſigned only to recommend a further inquiry into the ſubject. M. Le Blanc has adduced ſome experiments and obſervations, to ſhow that nickel is not a diſtinct metal, without pretending, however, to decide the queſtion.

The 'Obſervations on the Flint which exiſts in the Epidermis of ſome Reeds' are extracted from Mr. Nicholſon's Journal. It is ſingular to obſerve M. Guyton's difficulty in explaining the term 'bonnet-cane:' he is not aware that it is the cane employed in making bonnets. We are ſomewhat ſurpriſed that no chemiſt has noticed the flint in writing-paper, which ſo quickly deſtroys the fine point of a pen.

M. Haſſenfratz has continued his memoir on areömetry, by an 'Enquiry into the apparent Anomalies in the Denſities of different Proportions of Water, and of Salt in a ſolid State; and into ſome of the Appearances of Lime, Alumine, and Nitre.' Theſe anomalies were noticed in the former number, where it was obſerved that the denſities of ſolid ſalt did not follow the law of the proportion of water combined, but were ſometimes above and ſometimes below the mean denſities. The anomalies reſpecting quick-lime are owing, 1. To the denſity of the lime; 2. That of the combined water; 3. The affinity of the lime for the water, and the ſtate of the combination. Each of theſe cauſes are diſtinctly explained; and, in other ſalts, the anomalous reſults are found to depend, 1. On the diminution of the volume of the mixtures, when, on cooling, they abſorb caloric; 2. On the augmentation of the volume, when caloric is ſeparated; 3. The different denſity of the ſame ſubſtance, when in maſs and in powder.

'An Account of a Memoir, by M. Fabroni, on the Vinous, Putrid, and Acetous Fermentations, and on the Formation of Æther, with Reflexions on the Nature and Product of theſe Proceſſes.' The Italian philoſopher was ſent to Paris to ſettle finally the buſineſs of weights and meaſures, and of courſe received with great reſpect. His memoir was read to the Philomathic Society, and is highly praiſed by M. Fourcroy, who, in his 'Reflexions,' deſtroys, however, all the leading poſitions. The principal points which M. Fabroni inſiſts upon are, that fermentation is only a ſlow effervеſcence during the decompoſition of a body, which is, as uſual, effected by a re-agent; and that alcohol is the production of fire, and does not exiſt in wine. The Florentine phyſician ſupports, however, his doctrine with great plauſibility; and it deſerves more attention than Fourcroy has afforded, who nevertheleſs compenſates for this deficiency by exuberant praiſes.

Voyage en Suisse et en Italie, fait avec l'Armée de Réserve, par V. D. M. Auteur de l'Anglais Cosmopolite, employé a l'Etat-Major-Général de la dite Armée. 8vo. Paris.

Journey to Switzerland and Italy, in Company with the Army of Reserve, by V. D. M. Author of the English Cosmopolite, attached to the General Staff of the said Army. Imported by De Bosse.

"WHY do you not add an epithet to travels?" says a friend of the author. "You have your choice—Philosophical, picturesque, sentimental, curious, interesting, romantic, instructive, moral, and amusing, are at your disposal. Your only difficulty must consist in the determination; and a good choice would decide your success. Why then do you not determine?" —'Because I lay it down as a principle, to permit others to judge of a book. Every reader possesses this as an incontestable right; and the public, not myself, must class my productions. Nothing is so assuming as to pretend that your work is philosophical, moral, or instructive;—nothing less determinate than picturesque or romantic: the inventor of sentimental travelling has alone a right to call his journey a "sentimental" one. Besides, what is philosophic or amusing to one is not so to another; and to add an epithet is to praise my work, since a philosophic book is necessarily good.'

Such are the author's reasons for calling his work simply a *Journey*; but were he to have added an epithet, it would have been sentimental, for Sterne is his idol and his model. Yet he does not follow him servilely: lively and good-humoured, his remarks are often entertaining; and, under the guise of levity, he seems to have studied, and to reason, with precision. With all his fondness for Sterne, and J. Jacques, he is not insensible of their faults. We shall copy a short passage to this effect.

'Buffon will always be an honour to France; but we Frenchmen are constantly in extremes. We style Buffon another Aristotle—He is Buffon, and that is sufficient. With our rage for comparisons, we often miss our aim:—leave the Henriade in its place, it will always be estimable; raise it to a level with the Æneid, and it loses its value.'

His friend, father Jerom, is an amusing companion; and the patron is, if not the first consul himself, a man of distinguished rank in the army of reserve. When this army was in motion, every journal (he says) was loud in proclaiming its power and its influence. It was to make peace or to conquer. Our traveller then determined to join this army, as a spectator, as a companion—himself, as his motto tells us, 'solus in turbâ.' His object then was to travel with an army, to pass the defiles of the Jura, the Valais, &c. with a numerous host; to be

pushed forward by one, and checked by another; to run when he wished to walk, and to creep when he wished to fly; to be obliged to hasten when he wanted to hear the roar of a torrent or contemplate a ravine; to experience a thousand contradictions, and to submit to all voluntarily as a party of pleasure. We can truly add with him—'this is indeed a new tract.'

To follow a journey of this kind is to pursue an *ignis fatuus*; for, though we think the author not without abilities equal to a more laboured performance, our information is chiefly derived from the notes. Indeed, in many places, he appears to greater advantage when closely examined than would be credited from his lively desultory manner. The old man of Jura is an interesting object, as well as the scenery in which he meets our sentimental traveller: from the festoon of portraits with which the present journey is adorned, this may perhaps be advantageously selected.

'We began to pass elevated mountains and narrow defiles to arrive at Clairvaux, a melancholy residence, where a rivulet flows which I should have mistaken for a torrent had I never seen the Alps. We arrived in the evening at Creusé, where we were surrounded on every side by barren rocks, on which with difficulty a few shrubs drew a scanty nourishment. The horizon is bounded by the chains of Jura, crowned with furs and larches. Nothing is more gloomy than the prospect, since the harsh forms and funereal hues of these trees absorb the light, and throw a veil on all nature. I escaped from my travelling companions, and descended along the ravines, till I arrived at a brook whose stream was somewhat enlarged by drains, to enable it to turn a saw-mill. I went still lower, and seemed almost at the centre of the earth. Around me rose mountains whose points were lost in the clouds. All nature was silent, and the bird of night was only heard uttering its mournful sound. Over my head hung some suspended rocks, checked in their fall. At the bottom of the deepest ravine, near the bed of a torrent long since dry, I yielded to a gloom, in unison with the scenery around, and contemplated an object whose loss I shall long lament. Feeling a sudden faintness, occasioned by the frighful solitude in which I was, I invoked the dear shade, constantly present to my thoughts, and wished that, at a distance from mankind, in a spot where no one seemed to have penetrated, I might again converse with her. I called her, and even echo did not answer my complaints. I wished that the tales of our nursery were not merely fables. Alas! it is in vain. I have before observed, that, when we leave this world, we cannot ever return to it, even to comfort those whom we have left in affliction.

'I yielded to grief, when, in the midst of my reverie, I was

interrupted by the ſtrangeſt queſtion that was ever aſked in ſuch a place and in ſuch circumſtances.—" Will *he* ſoon paſs this way ?" ſaid a voice partly broken. I thought myſelf in a dream—looked around, and perceived no one. At laſt, led by the ſound of the ruſtling firs near me, I ſaw, a little above me, a venerable old man, accuſtomed for many years to range the mountains in ſearch of herbs, which he ſuppoſed to poſſeſs ſome virtue, and of wood to enliven his fire. This queſtion reſtored me to the living, to myſelf, and terminated my travels in imaginary regions. My ideas took a new courſe. Whence had fame brought the name which juſt ſtruck my ears ? I was certain it had occurred in the moſt ſolitary ſpot my eyes ever beheld : in all my journeys over the Alps I had ſeen nothing more detached, more wild—I was almoſt in the bowels of the earth.—' You know him then ?' ſaid I, to the old man. He had heard of him. " It was *he* who conquered Italy ; but it is *he*," added the veteran, with a ſtronger voice and gayer air, " it is *he* who will reſtore us peace."—This hope enlivened him ; this hope made him ſmile, and conſoled him with the expectation of ſeeing his children happy. ' With how important a miſſion,' ſaid I, ' is *he* charged. The laurels he gathered at Lodi are trifling in my eyes, in compariſon of the olive-branch which this old man has pictured in his hand on his return from Italy. He thus appeared more glorious in the mouth of the good man than in all the French gazettes.'

We ſhall only add, that the veteran was ninety-nine years old, had ſerved in the wars of Louis XIV. and was an enthuſiaſt of his victories.

Geneva attracted much of our traveller's attention ; and his remarks on this ſingular republic (it was once a republic) ſhow more penetration than his general gaiety—we had almoſt ſaid levity—would, in our eſtimation, have allowed him. He viſits the ſame city on his return ; and we ſhall copy from the former and latter parts, ſomewhat promiſcuouſly, his remarks on Geneva and its moſt diſtinguiſhed characters.

Jean Jacques is our author's hero, and he was anxious to know in what light he was conſidered where ' no one is a prophet.'

' I at firſt ſaw in the Lyceum,' he obſerves, ' a large ſquare column, ſurmounted with a buſt, which reſembled no one, and read the following inſcription—" A Jean Jacques Rouſſeau, le Peuple de Genève, le 23 Décembre, 1793."—I thought only of the reſpectful feelings which had raiſed this monument, and was examining it with a religious attention, when a Geneveſe drew me from my own reflexions by communicating his. " This column has the appearance of a chimney, and the buſt on the top exactly repreſents the unfortunate little being who

ſweeps it, preciſely at the moment when he has finiſhed his painful taſk by the little ſong which the women, children, and ſome idle loungers have the cruelty to exact." This was only ridicule; and, as it is eaſy to make the beſt things ridiculous, the ſneer produced little effect on me.'—Paſſing to the inſcription; "The people of Geneva! It is falſe. A very ſmall party, compoſed of the moſt eager of theſe who wiſhed to pleaſe the French, to whom Rouſſeau is dear, were anxious to pay a compliment to this nation."—This obſervation, ſomewhat more ſerious, made an impreſſion on me. "In every view," he added, "this monument is pitiful, and the following anecdote will give you a true idea of Geneveſe œconomy. The artiſt who was applied to for a deſign gave one: it was too dear: the ſecond was rejected for the ſame reaſon; the third was not ſuitable becauſe it would coſt too much; and this is the fourth, which at leaſt will not ruin the government."—'I ſhould rather think, for the honour of your country, that, ſuitable to the genius of Jean Jacques, they wiſhed the monument to partake of his ſimplicity.'—The reply, "*you do us too much honour*," pronounced with irony, ſhowed that the Geneveſe was not of my opinion.

'I ſpoke of Jean Jacques to others. According to the women, he was an abominable ſeducer: according to ſome men, he had deſtroyed the organiſation of ſociety. "You forget the Social Contract," ſay they.—'You do not recollect,' ſaid I, in reply, 'the government of Poland. Great man! envy dwells on your errors, and no one is a prophet in his own country.' At laſt, when preſented to M. S. I conſulted him. "We conſider," ſaid he, "Jean Jacques as one of the beſt and moſt eloquent writers. With reſpect to ſtyle and ſentiment, his glory is unimpeached." He enlarged on his imagination, and paſſed on to what did him more honour,—his Emilius. "Our nation is wholly changed ſince the publication of that work. We have adopted his method of education—our mothers ſuckle—ſwadling cloaths are unknown—and we have neither rickety nor deformed children."—This is the real êulogy of Jean Jacques.'

We meant to have enlarged on Geneva; but our extracts have exceeded their expected length, and we ſhall ſtep on to Italy without any delay even with the recluſes of Mount Ailly, an intereſting little epiſode, or the more philoſophical diſquiſitions reſpecting the crêtins and the goîtres. The nineteenth chapter, entitled 'the battle of Marengo,' will furniſh the only other extracts that we can admit. The introduction is curious.

'Heaven preſerve thoſe who have a river to croſs from paſſing it ſurrounded by an army! What a crowd! What

cries! A numerous host—servants with loaded horses—all crowded into a flying-bridge, which can carry only a limited number. After fifteen hours' waiting, our turn came, and we had the mortification to see a box of papers and effects, intrusted to us, fall into the Po. The time employed in recovering it prevented us from reaching Voguerra before midnight—a night which I shall always recollect; a night of false alarms, terrifying stories, mysteriously circulated—a complete defeat—a battle lost—generals killed: nothing that could distress and discourage the French was forgotten. At dawn of day we looked on each other, to catch from our neighbours some gleams of hope; but every one remained motionless and mute; each animated by a similar curiosity.

'The events of the battle are well known; and I shall only mention some interesting circumstances *which perhaps it would be more prudent to conceal.* The morning after our arrival reports of peace were in every mouth, and we were witnesses of the interesting emotions which these reports occasioned. The victory, the restoration of eleven fortresses, the armistice, cost us dear. He who contributed to gain the battle, who, by his talents and probity, might have *repaired the wrongs of others and made his nation amiable, in a country which wanted that impression*—Dessaix, was no more.

'The rout of the French was complete for some time, and the reports which we heard the former evening were not without foundation, but were in part owing to servants and suttlers, who, while flying, did not lose their presence of mind sufficiently to forget pillaging, and profiting by the disorder which they occasioned. A superior officer, whose name I need not mention, seeing the rout, asked, with much emotion, if he should not order a retreat. The other, who preserved all his coolness, replied,—that he was only astonished at *his* confusion, and that an officer of his rank should preserve his recollection.

'The next morning, dining with an Austrian officer who was at the battle, I found that the army of Melas, instead of profiting by their first advantage, lay down, and, forgetting to pursue us, were eating their dinner when the French returned to the charge.

'General Melas said, in the presence of some superior officers, that what consoled him was being beaten by one whom he considered as the greatest warrior in Europe.—One of the officers replied with *naïveté,* that he supposed the general was not speaking of him.'

On the whole, we have been highly entertained by this lively

writer; and the notes, as we have said, are of a superior kind. Some 'pieces justificatives' are added, and, in truth, they seem much wanted. I shall conclude, said a preacher once, with some reflexions on the whole:—It is unnecessary, replied a wag: you will be *reflected* on sufficiently.

Histoire Naturelle des Poissons, par le Citoyen Cepede, Membre de l'Institut National, et Professeur au Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle. Paris.

The Natural History of Fishes, by Citizen Cepede, Member of the National Institute, &c. 3 Vols. 4to. Imported by De Boffe.

THOUGH we have been some time in possession of the first volume of this work, we have delayed our account of it, in expectation of receiving the two others which were said to be ready for the press. We can wait no longer however; but must announce the work, and give some analysis of, at least, the preliminary discourse on the nature of fishes, and of the author's classification.

When the splendid work of Buffon was sketched in the outline, it was designed to comprehend the whole of animated nature: but he was soon obliged to exclude the white-blooded animals and fishes, and confine his labours to quadrupeds, birds, and minerals. M. Cepede purposed to continue the plan; and, having already published the natural history of serpents in two volumes, formerly noticed at some length in our journal, now proceeds to marine animals.

The inhabitants of the ocean and rivers have received a comparatively imperfect and inconsiderable share of the physiologist's or the naturalist's attention. Their animal œconomy is little known; though their anatomy, by the labours of Dr. Monro, has been greatly illustrated. In a systematical view, Linné, dissatisfied with the attempts of his friend Artedi, published, in the two last editions of the System of Nature, a new arrangement, which is at least incomplete, and found by no means co-extensive with later discoveries. Brassonet's Icthyologia was a work of promise, but has proceeded only a little way; and the magnificent system of Block, too extensive for many naturalists, is confined to a few hands. It is publishing, however, in a humbler form. Much room remained, therefore, for the labours of the icthyologist; and M. Cepede's talents and opportunities are too well known to leave any reason to fear disappointment.

The classification of fishes has been found peculiarly difficult, from an unusual source, viz. the determining the limits of the appellation. It has been supposed, with good reason,

that the inhabitants of the earth, the air, and the water, were sufficiently distinguished by their respective elements. On the subject of the great outlines of the System of Nature we shall enlarge very soon; but the distinctions just mentioned will appear, at the first moment, indispensable. The force of this arrangement, viz. confining the appellation of fishes to the inhabitants of water, and birds to animals that fly, &c. will be greater, when we consider, that, in this way, we deprive the Linnéan system of its most striking, its most hideous incongruities, viz. the union of bats with human beings, and of whales with terrestrial animals: the one is an inhabitant of the water, the other of the air. Yet, on a nearer view, to unite the one with fishes, and the other with birds, would appear still more incongruous. Fishes live in water only: the whale requires air. Bats flit through the air without the most striking appendages of a bird,—wings or feathers. The whale has lungs as well as land animals, is viviparous, and nourishes its young; nor does it so much resemble fishes as the seal, which evidently belongs to terrestrial animals. The bat breathes by lungs confined in the chest; not admitting, like birds, the air through every cavity; and nourishes its young like the other mammalia. So distinct, therefore, is an obvious from a real and natural classification. It was not without reflexions of this kind that we were ourselves reconciled to the separation of whales from fishes, the first deviation of Linné from his friend Artedi. One other deviation from the system of Artedi is not, perhaps, equally defensible, viz. arranging the cartilaginous fishes and the branchiostegi, those which have a single branchial aperture on each side, among the reptiles. These are truly fishes; and, though they can breathe air without the intervention of water, can yet wholly live in water. Linné seems to have been misled by the apparent simplicity which the discovery of the mud-eel of Inguana in Carolina afforded to his system, by forming the connecting link between the serpents and breathing fishes, as this animal breathes both by gills and lungs. If it be objected that the nature of the mud-eel, an imperfect animal in its progress to a more perfect state, the tadpole of a future reptile, was discovered subsequent to the new arrangement, it at least gave stability to an apparent foundation for the separation of these animals from fishes, procuring for it a more favourable reception. We meant to have followed the history of the arrangement of fishes to the present æra, but the whole would be too extensive, and the changes of Gronovius and others are too inconsiderable to detain us; we shall therefore immediately notice that of our author.

M. Cepede first divides fishes into cartilaginous and osseous, a distinction clear and discriminated. These classes

are subdivided into four branches, founded on the presence or absence of an operculum or external membrane, an appendage to the organ of respiration, which alone distinguishes fishes from other animals with red blood.

Each division presents four orders, analogous to those which Linné introduced for the arrangement of those animals, which he strictly styled fishes; and these differences are found to be conformable to a more important internal structure, that of the skeleton. There are, therefore, eight divisions, and thirty-two orders. The parts which distinguish the orders, in each division, are the same; so that the whole arrangement may be comprehended at a single glance. In this volume the genera of cartilaginous fishes only are noticed. The genera of the other class are not yet brought forwards, in order that advantage may be taken of those discoveries which are announced previous to the publication of the other volumes. We do not understand that they have yet appeared.

To each genus is prefixed a table, and the history of fishes will be concluded with a complete methodical table of the classes, divisions, orders, genera, and species. The latter exceed 1000; though, if we recollect rightly, those enumerated by Linné were not more than 400. Some of the orders contain no genus; but M. Cepede wished to give his system at present its full extent, and not to require additions at a future period. Even while writing, new genera occurred to fill some of the lacunæ. Forskaal, Sonnini, and the later travellers to the Chinese seas, must have been great contributors. We remember examining, not many months since, some beautiful drawings of Chinese fishes, where the splendor of the colouring was apparently exceeded by the accuracy of the representation, among which we could discover some species referable to no established genus. We guard, in this respect, our language, in conformity to some remarks we have already made, and to the conduct of our author, which we think delicate and commendable. The new names, which he has formed from those of some respectable naturalists, he has applied to the species; 'for these (he adds) are invariable, while those of the genera may be changed with every new method which the progress of science may introduce.'

The first section of cartilaginous fishes, in the present volume, is divided into four orders:—1. the apodes; 2. jugulares; 3. thoracici; 4. abdominales: and the orders in each class and each section are the same.

Of the apodes there are two genera, the lamprey and the gastrobranche (petromyzon), and two species; one brought by Dombey from South America, not very unlike the blind lamprey: the other is the blind lamprey (the myxine glutinosa of Gmelin). Of the second and third order there are

no genera or ſpecies yet known. Of the fourth order there are three genera:—1. the rays: 2. ſquali (the ſharks); 3. aodon, a genus formed by our author. It conſiſts of three ſpecies; two ſquali; viz. the S. maſſaſa and kumal of Linné, ſeparated from the ſharks in conſequence of the want of teeth; and the horned ſhark of Bonaterre, deſcribed by Brunich in his Icthyologia Maſſilicaſis, from a dried head in the academical collection of Piſa.

As the firſt diviſion contained fiſhes without any branchial opercule, or branchial membrane, ſo the ſecond compriſes fiſhes without the former, but poſſeſſing the latter; the third, thoſe with the branchial opercule, without the membrane; and the fourth with both. Of the firſt order of the ſecond diviſion there are no ſpecies: of the ſecond order there is one genus, the lophius, in Engliſh the ſea-devil, the ſea-toad, the fiſhing-frog, &c. Of this laſt there are ſome new ſpecies, three diſtinguiſhed by the names of Faujas, Commerſon, and Ferguſon.

Of the third order there is one genus only, the baliſtes (in Engliſh, the old-wife), of which there are twenty-four ſpecies, many of them new; but this genus, by the confeſſion of Commerſon, whoſe MSS have greatly aſſiſted our author in his labours, is far from being ſufficiently known. Linné was only acquainted with eight ſpecies. The laſt order contains alſo a ſingle genus only, viz. the chimæra, ſometimes called the ſea-ape. The two ſpecies deſcribed by Linné have received no additions.

In the third diviſion the three firſt orders contain no genera; the fourth, the abdominales, contains two, the polyodon and the accipenſer. The only ſpecies of the former deſcribed is a new one, called the leafy polyodon, from having, on each ſide, a membrane, reſembling ſomewhat, in texture, the leaves of trees. It is of the ſhark kind, but differs from the ſquali by having only one branchial aperture on each ſide. Its ſtructure is alſo eſſentially different in many reſpects, the muzzle nearly equalling in length the head, body, and tail. The other genus, the accipenſer (the ſturgeon), compriſes three ſpecies, noticed by Gmelin in *his* edition of the Syſtem of Nature.

The firſt order of the fourth diviſion contains ſix genera;—1. the oſtracion, the bony-ſkin fiſh; 2. the tetrodon, the ſun fiſh; 3. the ovoides; 4. the diodon; 5. the ſpheroides; 6. ſyngynathes.—Of theſe, the three firſt are contained only in the volume before us.

Of the oſtracion there are fifteen ſpecies, many of which are new; of the tetrodon, nineteen, of which ſix are new. The oviforms conſtitute a new genus, diſtinct from the tetrodons on account of their ſingular form, and wanting all fins but the pectoral, which are as ſmall as the wings of a fly. It re-

ſembles an egg, even when its abdomen is not dilated: when it is ſo, the reſemblance is more complete.

We muſt now turn to the preliminary diſcourſe on the nature of fiſhes, which is written in the highly-laboured and poetical, perhaps it may be called the inflated, ſtyle of Buffon. We ſhall ſelect one or two ſpecimens, of which the firſt forms the introduction.

'The genius of Buffon, expatiating over this planet, has enumerated, deſcribed, and denominated viviparous quadrupeds and birds, leaving moſt exquiſite pictures of their different manners. Honoured by his choice, for the purpoſe of adding ſome new ſketches, as a ſupplement to his more important tablets, I have endeavoured to explain the number, the forms, and the habitations, of oviparous quadrupeds and ſerpents. I ſhall now attempt to finiſh the hiſtory of thoſe living and ſenſible beings known by the appellation of animals with red blood; by offering that of the immenſe claſs of fiſhes.

'We are here to contemplate beings moſt worthy the attention of the philoſopher. Let the imagination, lightened by the torch of ſcience, collect within its glance all the organiſed productions of the creative power: let it unite them according to their ſimilitudes, and compoſe a whole ſo vaſt, that, from man to the plant which approaches neareſt to unorganiſed matter, every degree of compoſition, every combination of ſtrength, every varied ſhade of life, may ſucceed in an equally different number of directions, and by degrees equally inſenſible. In the midſt of this wonderful ſyſtem of innumerable varieties are found the different families of fiſhes which conſtitute our preſent ſubject: theſe are the ſingular links which unite the more perfect animals with the legions of inſects, worms, and the leſs compound animals, and with the more ſimple tribes of the vegetable kingdom. They participate in the organiſation, the properties, the faculties of all: they are the centre, where the rays of the ſphere, which comprehends the whole of animated nature, converge: they ſhow, with every thing around, relations more marked, more diſtinct, and more ſtriking, becauſe more nearly approaching: they receive more ſtrongly, and reflect more vividly, to the obſerver, the brilliant light which reſults from compariſon, and without which, to the moſt active mind, objects would be as if they did not exiſt.'

At no great diſtance M. Cepede riſes higher, into the regions of poetry; but perhaps, in a work of this kind, humbler proſe might have been more ſuitable: we ſhall ſelect the paſſage for more than one reaſon.

'Of all animals with red blood, fiſhes are thoſe whoſe

domain is least limited; but this immensity, so far from distracting our imagination, raises and encourages it: and what can better elevate, animate our intelligence, fix our attention, and hold it in that religious contemplation so proper for the perception of truth, as the immense and varied spectacle which the innumerable habitations of fishes present? On one side, seas without bounds, and immoveable in a profound calm; on the other, waves yielding to every agitation of currents and tides. Here, the rays of the sun, reflected in their vivid colouring by the burning waves of the equatorial seas; there a thick haze, silently reposing on mountains of ice, floating in the midst of hyperborean glooms. The sea, sometimes tranquil, doubling by its reflexion the number of the stars in the calmest night, and under the most serene sky; sometimes the accumulated clouds, preceded by the deepest darkness, precipitated by a tempest, darting their redoubled thunders against the enormous mountains raised by the winds. At a distance, and on the continents, torrents furiously rolling from cataract to cataract, or the limpid stream of a silver river, softly mæandering along a flowery bank, towards a calm lake, enlightened by the pale splendor of the moon. In the sea, grandeur, power, sublime beauty, all announce creative Nature, all manifest her glory and magnificence. On the enchanting banks of lakes and rivers she is felt in her softest charms; the soul is wildly agitated, hope is warmed, remembrance animated by tender feelings, and gives way to affections so truly interesting, and so favourable to happy suggestions—Ah! in the midst of what to the feeling is most powerful, to the soul most grand and sublime, can we fail to experience that internal spring, that ardent love of science, which impediments, distance, and time, increase instead of diminishing?"

This is, in many senses, poetry. It has little solidity in its foundation, and less in its superstructure. The most violent tempests seldom reach the bottom of the ocean, for its inhabitants and weeds are scarcely for ages disturbed. When storms approach, fishes of every kind seek unfathomable depths; and, when the chilling east wind blows, they are no longer found within its influence. They frequent the bays and the eddies only when the softer south renders the waters near the shore of an equal temperature. As the author acknowledges, fishes often keep to an accustomed coast; but this is by no means invariable. Some species will, for years, leave their usual haunts, and again return: sometimes they are seen there no more. The fishes of passage, the salmon, the pilchard, and the herring, though on the whole constant, are sometimes capricious in their choice: the first will for ages neglect the *embouchure* of one river, and ascend a neighbouring rivulet;

they will in turn neglect the latter, and prefer the former. The herring and the pilchard are more ſober in their attachments, and purſue a ſteady courſe, from the Baltic to South America, viſiting, very generally, the ſame ſpots. Yet theſe are alſo capricious in their preference; and, in Cornwall, ſome given bay will, for many years, be neglected by the latter, while the Frith of Forth, now ſo much diſtinguiſhed by the former, uſed to be but ſcantily ſupplied with their nouriſhing ſhoals. Thoſe who examine theſe changes minutely will perceive ſomewhat owing to the alterations in the banks, which vary the courſe of the currents: more is often to be attributed to the ſupply of their peculiar nouriſhment in a given ſpot, which a change in the ſhores may deſtroy. In general, a fiſh ſwims againſt rather than with the ſtream, as to impel its courſe is more eaſy than to preſerve its balance. Fiſhes are alſo uſually inſectivorous; and, like all animals of this kind, can bear a long faſt: in their increaſing ſtate they eat voraciouſly; when adult, a ſmall portion of food ſeems to ſuffice; and, when deprived of animals, will often feed, though not with ſatisfaction, on farinaceous and other vegetable food.

Theſe, and ſimilar inveſtigations, ſhould have employed our author in the preliminary diſcourſe. In this branch of the phyſiology of fiſhes, which has been much neglected, and on which we may at a future period enlarge, the ſubject has engaged much of our attention, on the ſhores of the ſea, and in different modes of fiſhing. The fiſherman's knowledge has not yet enlightened the pages of the philoſopher. Another inquiry, which we have before ſuggeſted, might form a pleaſing ſubject of diſquiſition. There is little doubt that this globe was once covered with water, and this water was ſalt: there is as little doubt that fiſhes exiſted prior to the æra when the world became habitable for the human race. It muſt thence follow, that all fiſhes were originally inhabitants of ſalt water, and that the preſent ſpecies of river-fiſhes are a degenerated race, in an element not perfectly congenial. Much might, we think, be ſaid in favour of this ſuppoſition: but we muſt forbear from the diſcuſſion.

M. Cepede ſpeaks of the general form of fiſhes, their anatomy, and their functions. The gills, he obſerves, exhibit the office of lungs, and ſeparate from the ſea the oxygen which it contains; but the ſurface, the external cavities of the ſtomach and inteſtines, may aſſiſt in this office, and abſorb vital air from the ſurrounding fluid. Yet perhaps the fat of many fiſhes, and the ſlimy ſubſtance, or ſcales, which cover every kind, may prevent this effect, by hindering the water from coming in contact with the animal.

The organs of ſenſe in fiſhes are examined at ſome length;

but we evidently see M. Cepede has studied the nature of fishes in his closet only. Their sense of smell is indeed very simple, but that of hearing is by no means so. They derive great advantage from the element in which they live, which conducts sound, as we have had occasion to show, much better than air; but their organ of hearing lies deep in the head, and the external aperture is almost imperceptible. There is indeed much reason to think that the general appearances which prove them to be sensible of noise arise from a concussion of the element in which they are, communicated to the whole body. The sense of touch must be consequently more delicate than our naturalist has represented it, who never, probably, caught trouts by tickling them. It is a singular fact, that if the hand is held quietly in the water, a fish will not be disturbed by it; and, if the fingers are slowly raised, to touch the under part of the body, it will, after a slight titillation, be so much pleased, as to suffer the hand to seise it. M. Cepede also, who supposes the cause of salmon, for instance, repairing to rivers to be a torpid inactivity previous to laying their eggs, can never have seen these fishes coming up rivers, and leaping over weirs and other cataracts.

The beautiful colours of fishes he has very imperfectly explained. He considers them as originally owing to the brilliancy of the sun's light in fishes of the equinoctial ocean, and as immediately derived from a kind of prismatic reflexion of the solar rays from the scales, or from the light becoming a compound part. The colours, whatever they are, must shine from their own peculiar nature, since fishes residing in the cavities of rocks are often beautifully resplendent; and the colours of others, when viewed even in deep water, are the same, or perhaps more vivid. The slime, which our author calls the varnish, is certainly the seat of the colour, which is heightened by the circulation. When a fish is shaken with others, as when taken in a trawl, though its scales are uninjured, the colour is lost: it may be also washed away, without destroying the scales; but in every instance, when the animal is dead, it decays, and sometimes wholly disappears. The shades and striæ exist in the skin, and the uniform colouring is thus varied in the beautiful tints of many brilliant fishes. In this part also we meet with some little poetical tincturing in our author, of which we shall transcribe a short specimen.

'From what has been said we may easily conclude, that on these coasts, where copious streams of light can penetrate through the water, fishes will be adorned with a greater number of beautiful tints. Indeed those which shine with the splendor of the most polished metals, or the richest gems, are

found in the tropical oceans, whose surface is inundated by the rays of a sun, unshaded by a cloud, poured over these equatorial regions, and filling the atmosphere with its splendor. We find also fishes decorated with equal magnificence of colouring in the polar seas, where mountains of ice and eternal snows, congealed by cold, reflect light from myriads of surfaces, and render that which the moon and auroræ scatter during the long nights of these glacial zones, as well as the light which the sun dispenses during the extended continuance of an hyperborean day, more dazzling.

'If the fishes which inhabit, or are concealed by, these congealed masses, though frequently splendid and brilliant, excel, in the variety and beauty of colouring, those of the temperate zones, they yet yield in the richness of their ornaments to those which inhabit the burning waters of the tropics. In these countries, where the atmosphere is almost on fire, must not the heat give a new activity to the light, increase the attractive force of this fluid, facilitate its combination with the substance of the scales, and thus produce shades much more brilliant and various? Hence, in climates where every thing bears the print of the solar power, some species of fishes display, even on the covered membrane of their branchiæ, the elements of shining scales—a silvery dust.

'But it is only in the midst of sweet or salt water that fishes wear their superb or elegant decorations: it is only in a fluid most analogous to their nature that, in possession of all their faculties, they animate their colours by every internal movement their exertions can produce. It is only in the midst of water, that, independent of the oily and transparent varnish, elaborated by their organs, their shades are embellished by a second varnish, formed by the strata of the fluid through which we perceive them.'

We cannot stay to examine this reasoning, A slight attention will show that it confutes itself; and to suppose reflected light again reflected, the light of aurora borealis, which does not impede the sight of the smallest star, when reflected, to be increased so much in intensity as to equal the tropical splendors, is an idea truly unphilosophical.

The propagation of fishes is explained at length, with great clearness, and we believe with great accuracy, and the action of their different fins and muscles discriminated with considerable propriety. The air-bladders of fishes have lately engaged much attention, and M. Cepede has collected what later chemists have endeavoured to ascertain by analysis, respecting the nature of the air. It has been found of very different kinds in different fishes and in different situations; but our author suspects that it is naturally hydrogen; not

only as this is the lighter gas, and consequently better adapted to render the animal buoyant, but because this gas must be the result of the decomposition of the water in the branchiæ. Each position must be examined.

Artedi, many years since, found that, by puncturing the air vesicle, the fish could no longer support its balance, or rise to the surface of the water. The air-bladder has therefore been considered as the cause of the buoyancy of fishes. The conclusion is however too hastily drawn. Fishes rise naturally, as specifically lighter than water, for when dead they will still swim in it: when their powers are destroyed by intoxication they will also rise to the surface. Even were it not so, the rising and sinking are voluntary motions, and the air-bladder has no muscle to contract it, nor the fish any visible method of filling it with air: it has no aperture to admit a greater, or to suffer a superfluous, quantity to pass off. To this may be added, that the fish rises and sinks rapidly, without any apparent distension of the abdomen in the former, or diminution in the latter attempt; that the bladder appears incapable of any considerable variation in its capacity, and is in bulk too disproportioned to the size of the fish to admit of its answering the purpose assigned. That it contributes therefore to the buoyancy of fishes is probable; but it is equally so, that this is not its principal use. We long since conjectured that it was the repository of some excrementitious gas, and probably hydrogen, which was secreted from the fluids.— But this rather belongs to another position, which we also intend to consider.

That water is decomposed in the branchiæ is an hypothesis only, though it may be styled a very probable one It is however unnecessary, for the water must contain air not chemically combined; and blood, we know, has an attraction for a part or the whole of this element. If water be decomposed, and its hydrogen combined in the substance of the fish, as M. Cepede insinuates, while its superfluous part is carried to the air bladder, the water must be absorbed entire, and the decomposition take place in the vessels; for there is no apparatus in the branchiæ for this purpose. This however is not supported by facts; for water must contain uncombined air, or the fish will die;—an event that would not have taken place if the œconomy of the animal were enabled to supply it from absorbed water. On the whole, we suspect that in Artedi's experiment the fish was injured, and that the air-bladder contributes only to preserve the balance of the animal; for, in Boyle's experiment, when the air was exhausted the belly swelled, and the fish rose to the surface, as it does in a state of intoxication, laying on its back.

The only other part of the discourse we shall mention re-

lates to the means of attack or defence which fishes possess; but M. Cepede confines himself chiefly to their arts, and is not wholly aware of all these, or of the use of the antennæ. He thinks they contain no poisonous fluid, except what they occasionally derive from their food. He speaks not of the perseverance of the shark, the open violence and destructive appetites of other fishes, who follow the numerous shoals of herrings or mackarel; the rapid dartings of the tail of the shag-ray, &c. These details are perhaps preserved for the particular articles.—On the whole, though we have discovered too slight an acquaintance with the nature of fishes, and their œconomy, in this discourse, a great part of it is executed with considerable ability and no inconsiderable elegance. The execution of the particular articles we shall advert to in our review of the subsequent volumes.

Before we conclude this critique we must notice the ornaments of the volume. The engravings are peculiarly accurate and distinct, but not always so elegant or so delicate as we wished to have found them. Perhaps the peculiar beauty of Block's figures (we allude to the French translation) has made us fastidious. Seven entire plates, and as many figures in other plates, are taken from Commerson's drawings. The whole number in this volume are twenty-five; but each of the subsequent volumes, it is said, will contain fifty. These we shall notice as soon as we have received them.

Traité du Calcul Différential et du Calcul Intégral.

A Treatise on the Doctrine of Differentials or Fluxions. Continued from Vol. XXIX. p. 503.

THE last chapter of the first part of La Croix's differential system is occupied entirely with the theory of curves, on the principles of equations laid down in the chapter preceding. Hence, as he had adopted the imaginary hypothesis that the number of roots in an equation is exactly the same with the highest index of the unknown quantity in that equation, he pursues the same plan with many writers in drawing his curves, and in some cases advances even beyond the bounds allowed by that hypothesis. The simple fact is, that the values of an ordinate to a given abscissa depend on the number of roots which the equation in the given case is capable of possessing; and this number does not admit the fiction here introduced, of a positive and negative value of the abscissa; which is, in other words, changing the equation, and introducing another of a different form. Our author is aware

of the difficulty attending his syſtem, but he has by no means removed it.

'I ſhall obſerve (he ſays) that nothing determines on which ſide the abſciſſas or the ordinates are to be regarded as poſitive; but when the choice is made, the oppoſite ſides become, in conſequence of that choice, negative. I inſiſt upon theſe remarks, only becauſe it ſeems to me, that in moſt elementary books it is not proved with ſufficient care; that we muſt take the negative quantities in an oppoſite direction to the poſitive: yet on this very much depends the form of every curve line.'

We agree entirely with him, that elementary writers have not ſufficiently conſidered the reaſons for what they advance, on the oppoſition of the poſitive and negative ordinates; and, we may add too, that we have ſeen nothing in this work to convince us that ſuch an oppoſition really exiſts; or rather, from the very firſt inſtance adduced in this chapter, we might prove the contrary. It is from the equation $y=ax+b$. When x is nothing, then y is equal to b. When x is made negative, or, in other words, ax is to be ſubtracted from b, then we have a new equation $y=b-ax$; and the abſciſſa being now taken, in an oppoſite direction, the ſtraight line, which was the locus of the firſt equation hence produced, forms the locus at the ſecond equation. When $ax=b$, then $y=o$, and this ſtraight line now meets the axis; but x cannot be made any greater; for ax cannot be ſubtracted from b, when ax is greater than b. Yet from this point, if the equation be again changed to its firſt form $y=ax+b$, the ſtraight line produced makes the locus of the new equation, provided y is taken on the oppoſite ſide of the axis. This taking of y on the oppoſite inſtead of the ſame ſide of the axis, from the ſuppoſed change of the ſign, is a mere *gratis dictum*; for we muſt firſt allow that ax can, in this caſe, be taken from b; that is, that a greater quantity can be ſubtracted from a leſs; and when we allow this violence of ſuppoſition, there is no reaſon why y, on one ſide of the axis, ſhould be conſidered as negative more than the other.

Our ordinate began, we will ſuppoſe, at a conſiderable diſtance on the left hand from the point where the locus of the equation cut the axis; it diminiſhed as it approached to that point: at that point it vaniſhed; and, as the motion continued, y came again into exiſtence, and formed a locus on the ſame ſide of the axis, making an angle with it equal to that which was made by the locus in its preceding ſtate. Now, as the advocates for the fiction of negatives, ſuppoſe that a quantity which exiſts and then becomes nothing, and then paſſes into another ſtate, paſſes, according to their language, from

nothing into negative, we cannot see how they can deny to our new series of ordinates, formed on the same side of the axis with the preceding series of ordinates, but with a contrary motion of the point, the name of negatives, as well as to those on the opposite side of the axis. There seems to be no ground for the assumption of one side or other of the axis, as positive and negative; and the elementary writers not being able to give a satisfactory reason for that assumption, have very prudently confined themselves to mere assertion, instead of applying to that rigid scrutiny of demonstration which the nature of the case evidently demands.

Allowing the positions required by the advocates for negative quantities, we have been generally confined to a particular number of branches; to a curve line, according to the highest index of the unknown number. Thus in the equation $y^4 - 96 a^2 y^2 + 100 a^2 x^2 = x^4$, this number is confined to four; yet, when x is greater than $10 a$, we can see only one ordinate corresponding to each value of the abscissa, and consequently only one infinite branch; though our author discovers in it four infinite branches; and proceeds to another equation, where the highest index of x and y is only four; and assures us, that in this equation there may be eight infinite branches. This equation deserves the consideration of mathematicians who adopt the vulgar hypothesis. It is proposed in the following form:

$$y^4 - 2x^2 y^2 + x^4 - a^2 x^4 + b^4 = o;$$

whose roots are contained, our author says, in the form

$$y = \pm \sqrt{x^2 \pm \sqrt{a^2 x^2 - b^4}}$$

and consequently he reasons that 'this form gives for y four real and infinite values when x is made positive and infinite, and an equal number on the supposition that x is negative and infinite; and it is to be seen hereafter that the number of infinite branches of a curve cannot be more than the double of that which marks the degree of its equation.'

In examining the truth of the above position, we must by the obvious methods find the roots of the equation, or see whether from inspection it appears that the curve can have any infinite branch. Now it is evident from such inspection that it may have an infinite branch; for x being made indefinitely greater than any given quantity, there will be a corresponding value of y indefinitely greater than that definite number. Hence we are led to examine into the values of y in all inferior values of x. To do this we must transform our equation agreeably to these values of x, and it will be first

$$y^4 - 2x^2 y^2 \pm a^2 x^2 - x^4 - b^4$$

Consequently as long as x is less than a there can be only one value of y to each value of x, and the curve admits not of an

infinite branch in this state of the equation. Let us try it in the other form it is capable of admitting, and then

$$2x^2y^2 - y^4 = x^4 - a^2x^2 + b^4$$

Therefore $x^4 - 2x^2y^2 + y^4 = x^4 - x^4 + a^2x^2 - b^4$

and $x^2 \backsim y^2 = a^2x^2 - b^4$

That is $y = \sqrt{x^2 \pm \sqrt{a^2x^2 - b^4}}$

Consequently when x is made greater than any given number greater than $\sqrt{a^2x^2 - b^4}$ there will be two values of y corresponding to it, or the curve admits of two infinite branches. Thus our author's eight infinite branches have subsided according to our estimation into two infinite branches; nor do we see the least grounds for, or utility in, the researches after the other supposed infinite branches of which four are perfectly imaginary, and the other two are the same with those which we have found, with the addition only of an imaginary distinction.'

Our limits will not permit us to dilate on the modes here presented to us, of drawing tangents to curves, finding points of contrary flexure, &c. &c. which do not differ much from those in common use, though from the endeavour to generalise every expression they are inveloped in great obscurity. We will extract, however, a very just remark on Leibnitz's method of considering curves, who regarded them 'as polygons, with an indefinite number of sides indefinitely small; and of which, according to his hypothesis, the tangent is the prolongation only of one side of the polygon. It seems, at first sight, that his method of finding the subtangent is only an approximation; for however small we may suppose the sides of the polygon, they can never be confounded with the curve; and consequently no one side can be considered as part of the tangent: but in the calculation a circumstance is introduced which justifies the substitution of the polygon for the curve, which is the subtraction of the powers of dx higher than the first, and of all the quantities which may be considered as infinitely small with respect to others. In fact, if on one side the analytical results thus obtained be so much the nearer the truth as dx is diminished in magnitude, on the other the polygon differs less from the curve inasmuch as the number of the sides is increased; and as the number of the sides may be increased without limit, it follows that the result obtained from the polygon differs from that which corresponds to it in the curve by a magnitude less than any given magnitude. Under this point of view the differentials do not present any idea to which a sound understanding can object, and may thus be applied with the greatest ease to every question which occurs in the theory of curves.' In this opinion we are happy to coin-

cide completely, as it removes entirely the objections arising from the velocity introduced into our mode of treating these questions, and whose magnitude it is much more difficult to conceive in every varying point of a curve than it is to see the relation of the increments of the curve ordinate and axis when the curve itself is considered as the limit of a polygon.

The second volume contains the inverse method of differentials analogous to our inverse method of fluxions, and the subject is treated nearly in the same manner, except that the same fault attaches to this which we have noticed in the preceding volume—the desire of generalising too much, instead of leading the learner by easy instances to the more difficult parts of this difficult subject.

Though we have thus ventured to express our disapprobation of some positions and some parts of the plan of this very laborious and ingenious author, we should be sorry that it should discourage the higher class of our mathematical readers from perusing and profiting by the many profound researches which he will find in this work. In the resolution of fluxional equations much recondite matter will be discovered; and the author has availed himself with great advantage of the labours of Monge, Euler, D'Alembert, and the best mathematical writers. His reading is immense; and the list of authors to whom he refers in every chapter affords not only a valuable proof of his industry, but at the same time will be found very useful to every one who is pursuing the same career. We lay down the volumes impressed with a full conviction that the work is not adapted to learners in our meridian; but to the proficients in the analytic art we recommend them, as containing a variety of very difficult theorems and problems on which they may profitably exercise their leisure and their abilities.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT OF FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

ESSAI d'améliorer, &c. An Attempt to ameliorate the Agriculture, the Arts, and the Commerce of France. By J. Bose, Member of the Tribunate. 12mo.—Many of the observations in this little work are by no means of a local nature, nor of slight import. What our author observes of the education of manufacturers, as well as of the proper conduct of government in assisting them, merits particular attention. On the latter subject, he thinks giving money will be disadvantageous, and rather recommends advances at a moderate interest, secured with caution. He particularly insists on the necessity of laws to preserve an uniform excellence in the manufacture.

Le Potager, &c. The Kitchen Garden, a Didactic Essay. By J. B. Lalanne. 8vo. Paris.—'I publish this Essay,' says the author, 'at a time when the enjoyments of many, formerly rich, are so much reduced by the misfortunes of the times, as to confine them, as it were, within the limits of a kitchen garden. May these ideas, which pretend to little, soothe their misfortunes, and make them forget what they have lost! May this little poem afford the reader a hundredth part of the pleasure it has given the author!'

A dialogue between the critic and the writer precedes the poem. The critic tells him that his subject is humble and contemptible; but the writer, with many other good reasons for his preference of the kitchen garden, replies, that he composes to please himself—adding afterwards, in a manner somewhat forced, that his cabbages will brave the contempt of critics as well as the cold of winters.

A gardener only will agree with the author in calling the snail an 'injurious *reptile*, which man has a right to crush.' We may yet have some author who may compose on the *rights of snails*, and avenge their cause.

Tableau du Regne Végétal, &c. A Table of the Vegetable Kingdom, according to Jussieu's Method. By E. P. Ventenat of the National Institute, one of the Guardians of the Library of the Pantheon. 4 vols. 8vo. with Plates.—France has boasted of Jussieu, as much as Sweden of Linné; and if the one has had more numerous followers, the other can number more ardent votaries. In fact, the system of Jussieu is less perfect than that of the Swedish botanist, but more natural; it is even less pleasing in its form and language, but, when understood, more convenient. M. Ventenat was the friend and pupil of the younger Jussieu, the grandson of Bernard, and has, in these volumes, explained his master's system, not in a servile copy, but with many illustrations, and some amendments.

Prefixed to the first volume is a discourse on the study and progress of botany, concluding with a plan of the present work. A dictionary of botany follows, pointing out, with peculiar attention, the terms employed in the description of the different parts of the fruit and seed. He has particularly noticed the most celebrated botanists, adding a short account of their lives; and has explained many parts of plants with minute accuracy and attention. The vegetable physiology is described with peculiar care; and the science of agriculture, which is so much connected with this subject, is not omitted. To give a consistency to this part, under the article Vegetable, the order in which the different articles should be read is properly noticed. A very useful table is added of the different appellations given to the same part of a plant, in consequence of its different structure.

The second and third volumes contain an account of all the genera which are indigenous in Europe and grow in botanic gardens, or deserve, from their utility, to be known. These are arranged in natural families, according to the system of Jussieu, founded on the seeds, as containing one or more cotyledons. We find numerous changes in this part, which we are unable to follow particularly, as Jussieu's method is so little known in this country. The names of the orders, taken, in Jussieu's own system, from the titles of genera, are very properly altered. The history of the genera of each order is terminated by a history of their connexions with those which precede and follow.

The fourth volume contains, 1st, an account of undetermined plants, or those not readily comprehended under the former orders, and which appear to point out the necessity of new ones; [We need scarcely refer to our article on the Memoirs of the National Institute, to point out many improvements of botanical science, with respect to the cotyledons. It must be fresh in the reader's memory.] 2dly, an appendix,

containing ſome obſervations made during the printing; 3dly, an alphabetical table, in Latin and French, of the families, genera, and ſynonyms; 4thly, a liſt of authors quoted, and the editions employed; 5thly, twenty-four plates, compriſing 110 families, and repreſenting the diſtinguiſhing characters of each. Theſe engravings, by Redouté, contain all the organs of fructification, from the calyx to the embryo; 6thly, an analytical table, to facilitate the inveſtigation of any plant, according to this ſyſtem. On the whole, we think this work truly valuable, as it expedites the progreſs of natural orders, the firſt great object in every branch of natural hiſtory, and as it materially aſſiſts the younger botaniſt in the knowledge of the vegetable œconomy.

Dictionnaire Elémentaire, &c. An Elementary Dictionary of Botany, by Bulliard; reviſed and almoſt wholly new arranged by L. C. Richard. 8vo. Paris.—Bulliard's Dictionary has been always highly eſteemed, and this new arrangement has rendered it much more convenient as a work of reference. It is illuſtrated by twenty well-choſen engravings.

Flore de la ci-devant Auvergne, &c. The Flora of the Province once called Auvergne, or a Collection of Plants found on the Mountains of Puy-de Dome, Mont d'Or, &c. Second Edition, with the Addition of many Genera and Species, Characters, Deſcription, Duration, Time of Flowering, Ripening the Fruit, Situation, &c. By A. De Labre, M. D. Profeſſor of Botany, &c. 2 vols. 8vo.—The merit of the former edition of this delightful Flora is well known. We notice it now on another account, viz. the very excellent deſcription of the wild volcanic country, whoſe plants are deſcribed. We have ſeen nothing more inſtructive and intereſting to the mineralogiſt and general reader. Nature ſports in boundleſs variety; and craggy pics, volcanic craters, &c. are contraſted with beautiful rivers, delightful gardens, and meadows variegated with the greateſt diverſity of wild flowers.

The profeſſor's ſyſtem is deduced from the flowers and the fruit. The claſſes are the monopetali, polypetali, apetali, and cryptogamiæ; fruits ſuperior and inferior. The tranſlation of the Linnéan deſcriptions renders it highly uſeful to the French reader. A new ſpecies of verbaſcum, the V. glabrum, and of aconitum, called the Willemeteanum, in compliment to M. Willemet, we notice among the novelties. The aſperula celtica, the jaſone lævis, and aconitum humile alſo, have not been publicly deſcribed.

Manuel Coſmetique, &c. A Coſmetic and Odoriferous Manual of Plants; or a Treatiſe of all the Plants that afford Eſſences and Perfumes for the Ladies. By J. P. Buchoz. 8vo.

Paris.—M. Buchoz seems to possess in France nearly the same rank which sir John Hill once attained in England. The science of botany is exhausted to furnish captivating titles, and the present reigns pre-eminent over the rest. To render it complete, he has added a translation of the 'Toilet of Flora,' an English work, and warmly recommends his Manual to perfumers, &c. &c.

Disquisitio Systematica, &c. A Systematic Disquisition on the Leafy Mosses of Sweden, with Descriptions and Plates of the new Species. 8vo. Strasburg.—For this valuable addition to the Swedish Flora we are indebted to M. Swartz, author of the West-Indian Flora.

Zoögraphie des diverses Régions, &c. Zoögraphy of different Countries, both of the Old and New World, with an Atlas, by L. F. Jauffut, Member of a variety of Philosophical and Literary Societies. Paris.—This work is designed for the instruction of the younger students; and the atlas which accompanies it, like that of Zimmermann in his Specimen Zoölogiæ Geographicæ, contains the figures of the animals in the spots which they inhabit. It contains also an abridgement of the natural history of the mammalia and birds of each region, with a short account of the geography of their native countries; and is, on the whole, one of the completest and best-executed works of the kind that we have seen. It well deserves a translation.

Tables Synoptiques, &c. Synoptic Tables of Chemistry, by Fourcroy. Published in 1800, as an Abstract of the Lectures in the School of Medicine at Paris. Large 4to. Bound in an Atlas, containing 12 Tables, preceded by an Introduction.—The utility of tables as references is sufficiently obvious, and those published under the eye of the author unite accuracy with perspicuity.

Dix-sept Articles rélatifs aux Maladies des Dents, &c. Seventeen Sections relative to Diseases of the Teeth: in which it is clearly proved that an Inspection of the Mouth produces a Knowledge of the *individual Constitution*. By Louis La Forgue, expert Dentist, &c. 8vo. Paris.—This appears to be a quack bill of no common pretensions. We would advise the young ladies to keep their mouths close before this experienced dentist, who, from the teeth, may discover a little too much of the 'constitution individuelle.'

Traité des Plaies d'Armes à Feu, &c. A Treatise on Gun-Shot Wounds; in which the Inutility of Amputation after such Wounds, and in the greater Number of other Cases, is demonstrated. By J. Mehée, M. D. 12mo.—The opinion and arguments of M. Bilguer are revived in this little volume; but the author does not merely copy, he seems well acquainted

with his ſubject, and treats it with judgement and ability. We certainly, both in military hoſpitals and common practice, amputate too frequently.

Traité Hiſtorique et Pratique d'Inoculation, &c. An Hiſtorical and Practical Treatiſe on Inoculation, in which are inſerted the moſt important Articles of the Work of Grandoyer—in which the Rules of Conduct, not only with reſpect to the Facility of the Operation, but to the Treatment of the Small-Pox, are laid down, the Means of preventing the Contagion from ſpreading pointed out, and a Plan for general Inſtruction recommended. By MM. F. Dezoleux and L. Valentin. 8vo. Paris.—The authors promiſe much, and the work contains in reality ſome valuable remarks; but though it conſiſt only of 436 pages, we think the uſeful parts might be greatly compreſſed. The French writings on the ſmall-pox are in general inſufferably tedious.

Bibliothéque Germanique, &c. The German Medico-Chirurgical Library. By M. Brewer, Phyſician to the French Military Hoſpitals. 8vo. Paris.—This is, in other words, an analytical medical review, deſigned to diffuſe the knowledge of the medical obſervations of the German phyſicians. A work of this kind, with a proper diſcrimination, may be of ſervice; but in no country, except France, are medical publications more crude and diffuſe. England cannot always boaſt of excellence in this reſpect, but the varieſt trifles of our preſs are important in compariſon of many ephemera of the continent.

The firſt article relates to a work of M. Hufeland, on the natural and inoculated ſmall-pox, which have occurred at Weimar ſince 1788, with a ſupplement on the diſeaſes of children. This offers nothing worthy of our notice. The hyoſcyamus we ſee recommended in the hooping-cough.

The ſecond number of this bibliotheca deſcribes a caſe in which aſcarides were diſcharged by urine. The diſcharge was preceded by epileptic ſymptoms. Our faith is ſcarcely ſtrong enough to credit this aſſertion, unleſs we had further evidence, or more detailed obſervation. Among other caſes, we obſerve twenty-four drops of the juice of the tithymalus recommended for jaundice, and a ſolution of a drachm of emetic tartar in an ounce of water to remove excreſcences on the glans penis. A young woman, eight months advanced in pregnancy, is *ſaid* to have died of an hæmorrhage, as is *ſuppoſed* from the vagina, without the ovum being affected. A paper on the affection of the eyelids, as a prognoſtic in acute diſeaſes, is ſingular. The *left* eyelid falling, or the left eye ſinking, is conſidered as highly dangerous. A caſe is recorded, in which a ſtone in the kidneys produced all the ſymptoms of a calculus in the bladder. On the whole, the facts here mentioned are extraordinary; but we

could wiſh to ſee obſervations in general within the bounds of credibility, and ſomewhat more applicable to the cure of diſeaſes.

Le Conſervateur, &c. The Conſervator of Health; a Journal of Temperaments and Prophylactics. By MM. Brion and Bellay. Paris.—During the years 1783 and 1784, M. Brion publiſhed a periodical work dedicated to the Friends of Humanity, entitled an 'Eſſay on Theoretical and Practical Medicine.' This collection, among other uſeful and intereſting articles, treats of exerciſe, aliments, of madneſs or imbecility, of melancholy, noſtalgia, and hydrophobia, accompanied with meteorological obſervations. The preſent journal is a continuation of the plan; and the two firſt numbers, now before us, promiſe a fruitful harveſt in the continuation.

Traité des Membranes, &c. A Treatiſe of Membranes in general, and of different ones in particular. By Xavier Brehal. 8vo. Paris.—This work is new in an anatomical library, but it is not purely anatomical. It contains many phyſiological reſearches, and various experiments on living animals, not indeed calculated for any very important purpoſe.

Mémoire, ou Conſidérations, &c. A Memoir, or Reflexions on thoſe who are born both Deaf and Dumb, and the Means of reſtoring the Hearing to thoſe who are ſuſceptible of it. By H. R. T. Lebouvyer des Mortiers. 8vo. Paris.—This benevolent little volume is divided into three parts. The firſt contains ſome general conſiderations on the ſubject; the ſecond, an inquiry whether this defect be remediable by art; and the third contains the treatment of a perſon born deaf, with ſome other pieces relating to thoſe unfortunate beings.

The author refutes the opinion of the abbé Sicard, who conſiders the deaf and dumb as almoſt brutes; and that of Condillac, who pretends that they neither poſſeſs the faculty of remembering, nor the power of reaſoning. He proteſts, however, againſt imparting to them an idea of their ſituation, which would give them ſevere pain, and againſt torturing their minds, as has been often done, with the horrors of ſuperſtition, and a confidence in the power of ſome ſaint to reſtore the defect, which muſt end in the moſt dreadful diſappointment. It is better, he thinks, to employ ourſelves more in adding to their happineſs, and leſs in inculcating our ideas and opinions. Their inſtructions ſhould be practically uſeful, particularly in mechanics.

The ſourds-muets*, or deafly-dumb, are, in our author's opinion, often curable; and, inſtead of giving theſe unfortunate be-

* We ſhall employ this compound word as moſt expreſſive: the defect is in hearing only, for could they hear they would ſpeak. Our term deaf and dumb implies a defect in both organs.

ings to priests, to be instructed in theology, he recommends their being sent to able anatomists, to examine the organs, and those who die in the hospital being dissected. His remedies are vapour baths, injections, and electricity. One he has certainly cured, by continuing the treatment from the middle of December to the beginning of April. It is singular that, in the family of Luco, among fourteen children, four are deafly-dumb, and each third was thus defective, viz. the third, the sixth, the ninth, and twelfth.

Many singular facts seem to show, that the nervous centre of the diaphragm and the feet are peculiarly sensible to noise and motion in the deafly-dumb. The latter part is peculiarly interesting, as it contains Massieu's account of her thoughts and feelings before she recovered her hearing. We shall translate a part.

'She had no idea of words, but by seeing that people understood each other without signs.—" From hence I learnt," says she, " that they possessed a sense of which I was deprived." She had no idea of God, of the soul, or of immortality, but what was conveyed by her mother or her nurse. She was carried to Versailles, and, from thence, made to comprehend that there was a king much more powerful than him she saw, who never died, &c.—that there was a fire into which she should be thrown if naughty.—The sun appeared to her the most extraordinary object in the universe: the moon she thought a female sovereign.'

Though M. de Mortiers begins with attacking Sicard's opinion, he is far from being an enemy of his institution; on the contrary, he is its warmest admirer *.

La Callipédie, &c. or the Art of procreating beautiful Children. A new Translation of the Poem of C. Quillet. By J. M. Cailleau. 12mo. Bourdeaux.—We can say nothing new of the poem, nor any thing very favourable of the translation, and should be satisfied with announcing it, did not the following strange mixture of weakness and bombast strike us in the dedication.

'I dedicate,' says M. Cailleau, 'to the illustrious Society of Medicine, &c. at Brussels, to thank it for admitting me into its bosom, this new edition of a poetical physician, who, in an admirable work, and with a title apparently frivolous, which, however, fulfils all it promises, has sung in the language of the gods, and always in the presence of the august Minerva, after the example of Homer and the veteran of Ascra, the most amiable and useful of sciences, the art of rendering the human species perfect, and of uniting a beautiful soul with a beautiful body.'

* For a history of this admirable and excellent establishment we refer our readers to p. 507 of the present number.

Charpente de Philibert de l'Orme, &c. The Carpentry of Philibert de l'Orme, Architect, who lived about the Middle of the Sixteenth Century, re-publiſhed by M. Detournelle, Architect.—About the year 1550 wood was very ſcarce, and De l'Orme then began a reformation in the heavy joiner's work at that time employed. It is now re-publiſhed for a ſimilar reaſon to that which induced the author to write it.

Déſcription d'un Télegraphe, &c. A Deſcription of a very ſimple Telegraph, in Every-one's Power. 8vo. Paris.—This telegraph is the human body: the arms are the wings, and the trunk the perpendicular. The author ſhows, that various characters may be figured by it ſufficiently diſtinct to be ſeen with the naked eye or a teleſcope.

Eſſai, &c. An Eſſay on the Organiſation of Artillery. By General Leſpinaſſe. 8vo.—Experience is the baſis of our author's ſyſtem, which merits particular attention, but which we cannot, within our limits, explain. The general treats fully of the education of an artillery-officer, which he thinks ſhould conſiſt alternately of theory and practice, and contends that no one ſhould be employed but after the fulleſt examination. He propoſes alſo to unite the corps of engineers with the artillery.

Manuel Practique et Elémentaire, &c.—A Practical and Elementary Manual of Weights and Meaſures, and of the Decimal Calculus, containing the moſt accurate Inſtructions to render the new Syſtem familiar, with many comparative Tables founded on the Metre and Kilogramme. Second Edition, with the Addition of many Tables and Conſtructions, the comparative Value of the Ancient and Modern Meaſures, &c. By M. Tarbe.—A work highly neceſſary in France, where the whole ſyſtem of weights and meaſures has been deranged by modern refinements. An uniformity of meaſures is ſtill however wanting.

Elémens de Perſpective practique, &c. Elements of practical Perſpective, for the Uſe of Artiſts, followed by Reflexions and Advice to a Scholar on Painting, and particularly on the Landſcape. By P. H. Valenciennes, Painter to the Philotechnic Society, &c. With thirty-ſix Plates. 4to. Paris.—Theſe elements are, in many reſpects, highly valuable, but particularly in correcting the errors of the geometer, when his ſcience is rigorouſly applied to perſpective. The author, however, undervalues the geometrical elements too much, and is evidently not a ſtrictly ſcientific artiſt, though a landſcape-painter of eminence, and peculiarly correct in managing his diſtances. We were greatly ſtruck with the clearneſs with which the ſubject of his ſeventh chapter is explained. "The method of managing the ſhadows occaſioned by an opaque body interpoſed between the light, terminated by ſome

directions on the reflexion of objects from water." The applications of linear and aërial perspective are also very valuable.

The most pleasing part of this work is, however, the end of the 12th chapter, on gardens. The whole is divested of technical language, and enriched by numerous observations on the gardens round Rome, Paris, and London. He properly reprobates the ostentation of those who imagine they have created a mountain, because they have accumulated earth and stone somewhat above the height of a man. He mentions the reply of Coqueley to the late duke of Orléans, who asked him what he thought of his river of Mousseaux:—"My Lord (said he) it resembles a river as much as *two drops* of water."—Vernet's remark on the rock, and the baths of Apollo, is subjoined: —"If Louis XIV. had found this here, how much would he have spent to remove it? yet it cost above a million (of livres) to keep at a distance from the eye the figures of Apollo and the nymphs, which can only be seen with advantage very near."

Our author's own ideas of a garden we do not fully approve. He would retain the statues, the buildings, and the inscriptions, though he limits the latter to a local anecdote, a reflexion, or a reference to the time and circumstances of their compilation.—"It is enough to be assailed by the men of wit in society, (he adds) without being pursued by them in our moments of solitude and reflexion."

He warmly praises the Italian gardens, which we shortly noticed in our review of Mr. Price's work, though without the preference which M. Valenciennes seems to feel.—"Symmetrical composition, which is preserved in some points, is at an equal distance from the disgusting uniformity of the French gardens, and the negligence and whimsical variety of the English. They have indeed straight walks, but these are interesting from the trees which adorn, and the works of art which enrich them. The waters are confined in basins, but they are in abundance. If they are thrown into the air, it is not in a single jet, but in numerous streams, which form a majestic mass, far distant from the scanty pitiful jets of our gardens. If the quantity of water is too small, the Italian genius manages it with suitable address, as appears in the composition of the public fountain at Florence. The artist had only the slightest stream, but he has placed a Venus in it, pressing the water from her hair; and has thus magnified a little streamlet, which an artist would have despised, by an ingenious idea, equally novel and true. A larger quantity of water would have spoiled this brilliant idea."

On this subject our readers will form their own opinions, and not always agree with the author. It is more ingeniously,

perhaps more truly observed, that cold imitators of ancient statues from Greece, Rome, and Egypt, scattered with little distinction in the grounds of Versailles, Sans-Souci, &c. "have no expression in a country strange to them, but at Rome are historical monuments."

He admits, however, that Italy is not the only country of gardens, and speaks with enthusiasm of Hagley, and the bench of Thomson, with the inscription, in the spot which he loved. He speaks too of Ermenonville with high approbation, and of many gardens in France which are embellished by numerous beauties.—"To adorn our soil (he adds) with its true glory, we want only the illumination of peace and public spirit. Unhappily she is not, like Victory, eager to complete the brilliant destinies of the French nation."

The instruction to a young painter is very judicious. He recommends the study of Nature in her most picturesque situations, and in her most varied aspects; to contrast or divide these, so as, together or separately, to produce brilliant and sublime, or soft and melancholy sensations. He flies for examples to distant countries, examining the arts in each, to illustrate his advice. In this part he has borrowed much from the Travels of Anacharsis, but he writes for those to whom references would be tedious or impracticable.

Le Maitre de la Langue Allemande, &c. The German Master, or a methodical Grammar composed on the Models of the chief Authors of our Time, and particularly of Gottehed. Strasburg.—We chiefly notice this grammar on account of its very singular sale. This is the thirteenth edition; and of the twelfth edition 3000 copies were sold in a few months. It is not, however, a republication only. From the period of the first publication, German literature has greatly increased in extent and value: the language has been refined and improved by various authors, and each successive editor has kept pace with these improvements. This thirteenth edition, in particular, is almost a new work. The rules are simplified, and rendered more perspicuous and less numerous: the space, thus obtained, is occupied by a greater number of well-chosen examples. The paradigms and conjugations are greatly abridged, and the number of themes is increased in the same proportion. To facilitate the practice of translation, some of the best models are selected; and in the appendix are numerous passages from the best authors, as exercises.

Idée sommaire, &c. A summary Idea of a great Work, on the Necessity, the Object, and Advantages of Instruction, on the Difficulties that oppose, and of their Removal, by Means of a complete methodical Collection of every Branch of Human Knowledge. By D. L. C. 8vo. Paris.—Such is the title of the work which our author purposes to publish. It is

divided into three parts. The firſt treats generally of inſtruction; the ſecond of the inconveniences oppoſed to its progreſs, particularly of books, their number, their inſufficiency, their imperfection, &c. The mode of remedying the deficiency is ſufficiently explained in the title.

Penſées Morales. Moral Maxims. 12mo. Paris.—This is a compilation from authors on every ſide and in every language, but well choſen and well expreſſed. There are few maxims that are not ſtriking, from their truth and the peculiar turn of the ſentences. As the work lies before us, we ſhall copy two or three.

'He who ſpeaks, ſows: he who hears, reaps.—In doubt abſtain.

'The flatterer ſays to anger, "revenge;" to paſſion, "enjoy;" to fear, "fly;" to ſuſpicion, "believe."

'It is an excellent prayer—"God guard me from myſelf!"

'The ſage bluſhes at his words when they ſurpaſs his actions.'

Vérité des Vérités. Truth of Truths. By D***. Large octavo. Paris.—We notice this excellent little pamphlet, as ſuch phænomena are not often ſeen in the meridian of Paris. The firſt part is entitled 'philoſophically divine,' treating of the exiſtence of the world and of God, and the neceſſity of public worſhip. The ſecond is ſtyled 'philoſophically moral,' and treats of man as united in ſociety, of the propriety of laws, of the coercive power, anarchy, &c.

De l'Homme, &c. On Man. A Chapter detached from a Work on the various Modes of Social Organiſation. 8vo. Paris.—In the compariſon of man with animals, the author endeavours to prove that he cannot, with all his power, raiſe himſelf ſo far as to equal them in inſtinct; for animals are perfect,—man only ſuſceptible of perfection. This is the idleſt traſh of the new philoſophy; and, to confute it, only requires a definition of inſtinct, and a compariſon between this principle and reaſon. He adds, that man cannot arrive at a ſtate of nature; that his life is neceſſarily artificial. The hiſtory of man is that of paſſions, vices, and errors, which, amalgamated with the compoſition of man in ſociety, muſt enter into the form of ſocial organiſation, whatever mode is adopted. Reaſoning would be vainly employed, to correct ſuch a maſs of folly, ariſing from a want of diſcrimination, from a neglect of thoſe diſtinctions which would be obvious to a capacity of the meaneſt kind.

Sens Prophétique de l'Exurgat Deus, &c. The Prophetical Meaning of the Exurgat Deus, or the Sixty-ſeventh Pſalm in the Vulgate, preſenting the Hiſtory of the Church of Jeſus Chriſt, with a general Idea of the Hieroglyphics in the Hebrew Letters, the Hebrew Text, the Septuagint, &c. Several Ety-

mologies drawn from the Majority of the Hebrew Words of this Pſalm, of which many, and particularly the whole firſt Verſe of the Exurgat, are analyſed Hieroglyphically; beſides the Origins of the Name of God in more than Thirty different Languages, all developed from the Hebrew. By M. l'Abbé Caperan. Paris.—This publication has two ends in view, to explain a very difficult pſalm, and to ſhow the antiquity and excellence of the Hebrew language, by the light which it throws on all other languages. In the explanation of the pſalm, we are inclined to acquieſce in the grammatical conſtruction laid down by this author, and in the deviations from the Vulgate; but as we differ from him entirely in our ideas of the church of Chriſt, we cannot by any means conſent that the glories of the church of Rome are prefigured in the ſixty-ſeventh pſalm. It will be ſufficient to point out to our readers, that the fourteenth verſe in the vulgar tranſlation rendered thus, 'when the Almighty ſcattered kings in it, it was *white* as ſnow in Salmon,' is interpreted, that when thoſe kings were diſperſed, Rome became white as ſnow in Salmon. This diſperſion of kings means the number of emperors by whom the Roman empire was divided before the time of Conſtantine, in whoſe reign Rome became 'white as ſnow.' It acquired a freſh degree of whiteneſs 'by the fall of idolatry which prevailed before in it, and by the unreſtrained profeſſion of the Chriſtian religion. Nothing is ſo natural as this explanation, which is farther developed in the following verſe, deſcribing the flouriſhing ſtate of the church under Conſtantine.' We are unfortunate in not ſeeing this whiteneſs of Rome, either in the days of Conſtantine, or in any time from thoſe to the preſent days.

On etymologies a great deal of learning is diſplayed: but when it is attempted to prove that the three perſons of the Holy Trinity are marked out by three letters in the name of Jehovah, and that the repetition of one letter in it is to ſhow the two natures of Jeſus Chriſt, we naturally expect to find many fanciful analogies between the Hebrew and other languages. From this ſpecimen, however, we are induced to hope for a conſiderable degree of information from 'The Reſearches into the Principles of Etymology, or the Mechaniſm of Languages,' which the author purpoſes to publiſh by ſubſcription, and he will receive we hope encouragement adequate to his labours.

Dictionnaire des Athées, &c. Dictionary of Atheiſts, ancient and modern, by Sylvain Maréchal.—We find, in this dictionary, many apparently good people, whom we ſhould ſcarcely have expected to ſee in ſuch company. The author muſt of courſe expect many remonſtrances. We do not find, however, that Lalande has remonſtrated.

Réflexions, &c. Reflexions on Benevolent Eſtabliſhments, containing the Means of rendering the Adminiſtration and Diſtribution of public Charities more perfect. By M. Gerard de Meley. 8vo.—This ſhort little inſtruction, on a ſubject which requires more attention than many apprehend, is the dictate of much experience, aſſiſted by judgement and benevolence. It merits a tranſlation by ſome of the ſupporters of the numerous benevolent ſocieties of this kingdom.

Recueil général des Lois, &c. A general Collection of Laws relative to the Marine and the Colonies, from the Month of May 1789 to the End of 1799. by M. Lebeau. 9 vols. 8vo. Paris.—Theſe various laws are well arranged, and each volume is preceded by a chronological table, and terminated by an alphabetical one.

Coup d'Œil Politique, &c. A Political Glance at Europe at the End of the Eighteenth Century. By J. B. 8vo.—It is no eaſy taſk, in a glance, to comprehend the true intereſt of different powers, at a moment when paſſion or diſappointment hides them from our view, or to follow the devious windings of politicians, which derange every combination, and deceive at the ſame time both enemies and allies. An author, for theſe purpoſes, ſhould unite a deep knowledge of hiſtory to habits of following and deciding on events. We cannot congratulate our author on all theſe qualifications, but his remarks are generally acute, and his judgement frequently correct and impartial. His ſtyle is animated and perſpicuous. What he obſerves on the treaty of Campo Formio merits our chief attention.

Réponſe au Roi d'Angleterre. Reply to the King of England. 12mo.—This anſwer to the king is in reply to that of his miniſters, in rejecting the overtures of the firſt conſul. It has nothing remarkable but the motto, which is the following: 'George, you wiſh for war, and you ſhall have it.'

De la Litérature, &c. Literature conſidered, in relation to Social Inſtitutions. By Madame de Stael Holſtein. 2 vols. large 8vo. Paris.—Madame de Stael is the daughter of M. Neckar, and inherits, from her father, confidence in her own talents, with a moderate ſhare of judgement, not without the cultivation of a good education, though miſapplied in its objects. She might have been an amiable and a ſenſible woman, if ſhe had no pretenſions to the character of a learned one. In this work ſhe often ſteps beyond her confines; indeed, beyond her knowledge.

She begins with obſerving, 'that it has not yet been philoſophically conſidered how much the human faculties are gradually expanded by works of credit and importance compoſed ſince the days of Homer.'—Strange, that ſo obvious a truth ſhould not have been conſidered, or that a wo-

man who pretends to a cultivated mind ſhould be ignorant that it is a hackneyed theme with metaphyſical writers of almoſt every kind!—In an introduction of fifty-ſix pages, literature is examined, in its relations to virtue, glory, liberty, and happineſs. According to the author's definition, 'virtue is the fine ideal of the moral world, and genius the faculty of ſeeing with acuteneſs and preciſion.' The military ſpirit, according to madame Stael, is dangerous to free ſtates, and a profeſſional ſpirit ſomewhat like prieſthood.—Bu enough of this trifling: let us conſider the work itſelf.

This diſquiſition is divided into two parts: the firſt contains a moral and philoſophical analyſis of Greek and Latin literature; and the ſecond examines the ſtate of information and literature in France, ſince the revolution.

The firſt chapters of the firſt part treat of the earlieſt æras of Grecian literature, of their tragedy, their comedy, philoſophy, and eloquence: the following chapters are on the ſubject of Latin literature, from the time of Auguſtus to that of the Antonines. The eighth chapter relates to the invaſion of the northern nations, the eſtabliſhment of Chriſtianity, and the revival of letters: the ninth, to the general ſpirit of literature among the moderns. The eight laſt chapters relate to Italian and Spaniſh literature; that of the north, including the Engliſh, German, Daniſh, and Swediſh; and points out the chief fault imputed to the literati of France, that of wanting taſte—meaning for the literature of the north. She pays England, however, particular attention, by her remarks on the tragedies of Shakeſpeare, which ſhe does not underſtand; and on the pleaſantry, the imagination, the philoſophy and eloquence of the Engliſh, of which ſhe appears a very imperfect judge. The laſt chapter treats of German literature; and Werter is, ſhe thinks, emphatically, 'the book' of the Germans. The criticiſms on German writers are crude and ſuperficial. She concludes by obſerving, that the Germans want taſte naturally, and they are unable to acquire it by imitation.

In the three firſt chapters of the ſecond part ſhe begins with examining by what means the French nation poſſeſſed the greateſt taſte, grace, and gaiety; and the ſuperiority is aſcribed to its monarchical inſtitutions and their influence. She next examines the ſtate of French literature during the age of Louis XIV. and the 18th century. In the reſt of the work ſhe treats of their taſte and urbanity of manners, as well as of their literary and political influence; of the *emulation of women who cultivate letters*; of works of imagination and philoſophy; of the ſtyle of authors as well as of magiſtrates, and of eloquence.

Dictionnaire Univerſel, &c. The Univerſal Dictionary of

Commercial Geography. By J. Peuchet. 4to. Paris.—The fifth and last number of this work has just been delivered, and the whole is now completed. The author's effort is to show the form, the nature, the objects, and the laws of commerce in every commercial country, state, or city. It is founded on the Universal Dictionary of Commerce, by the abbé Morellet, not before published, to which the author has added the new information found in different works since the year 1783, as well as the changes which have occurred, in these respects, in different parts of Europe.

The introduction contains a very complete historical view of the progress of navigation, commerce, and agriculture, manufactures, institutions relating to commerce, and the laws of property. The work itself is indispensable to all commercial people, as it points out the sources where they can obtain the merchandises at the first hand; to manufacturers, since it explains the qualities of the different objects of manufacture, the rules followed in manufacturing them, and the places of the greatest consumption; to bankers, since it treats of exchange and the value of money in every country. It enters also into extensive details on colonial productions, and the speculations which may be made to the Indies, the Levant, to the Black Sea, and to the American islands.

The author has explained the new institutions of France respecting commerce, without omitting the former regulations. He has adopted the new divisions into departments, and pointed out the chief objects of commerce in each. The article '*Europe*' contains all the treaties of commerce which form the basis of the civil laws in this respect, and the work is terminated by a full and useful index.

Tableau de Commerce de la Grèce, &c. Account of the Commerce of Greece, from the Year 1787 up to 1797. By Felix Beaujour, Ex-consul in Greece. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris.—The commerce of Greece forms a considerable part of that of the Levant, and the author thinks it will be advantageous to France. This work is, however, interesting in another view. The author examines the geography of this famous country, enumerates its natural productions, describes the manners, the industry, and the arts of the inhabitants, and thus raises his work above the narrow limits of commerce, and renders it equally useful and entertaining.

Voyage Pittoresque de la Syrie, &c. A Picturesque Tour through Syria, Egypt, Phoenicia, Palestine, and Lower Egypt. By M. Cazes. Large Folio. N° 13.—We have before noticed the preceding numbers of this work, and need only add that the thirteenth contains six plates.—1. Antioch—a view of the harbour called Medina; 2. the large towers in the same city, making a part of its walls, and called, by the common

people, the remains of the palace of Seleucus; 3. a groupe of sixteen columns at Palmyra; 4. monuments situated in the valley that leads to Palmyra; 5. entablature of the Temple of the Sun at Balbech; 6. a sepulchral monument hewn from a rock at Jerusalem.

Voyage Pittoresque de la Syrie, &c. N° 14.—The fourteenth number contains also six plates.—1. The remains of a magnificent edifice at Palmyra, 'which *may have been* the palace of Zenobia,' or not. This building had evidently many different fronts, and is situated to the south-east of the great gallery; 2. mausoleum of Elabelus; 3. an internal view of the same; 4. an elevation of the portico of the Temple of the Sun at Balbech; 5. a view of the city of Cerine, on the northern coast of the island of Cyprus; 6. a portion of the rock called Youz Ber Euv, or the hundred and one houses, situated between the cities of Nicosia and Cerine in Cyprus.

Voyage d'un Français aux Salines de Bavarie, &c. The Journey of a Frenchman to the Salt-Mines of Bavaria and Saltzburg. By M. Barbé Marbois. 18mo. Paris.—The author undertook this journey in consequence of a discussion which took place in the Council of Ancients respecting the salt-works of France. He stayed here only six days, but seems to have employed his time well. Here are some delightful and picturesque descriptions, as well as useful information on the history, constitution, population, military, civil and religious state, the productions of the country, its relation to the neighbouring states, the manufacture of salt, its customs, and the cultivation of the arts. The whole is intermixed with amusing and curious anecdotes on the court of Saltzburg, the state of music in this country, and many other interesting objects. The style is easy and perspicuous, particularly in parts where the unaccustomed objects to be described, and unusual appellations, might have occasioned some difficulties of expression.

Voyage d'un Allemand à Paris, &c. The Journey of a German to Paris, and his Return through Switzerland. 8vo. Berne.—The author, M. Heinzmann of Ulm, had attracted the attention of his government by a warm injudicious attachment to the 'new principles,' and of course *chose* to pass great part of the year 1798 at Paris. He there collected a variety of anecdotes, tales of the day, without much discrimination, and added a number of reflexions on the events of the year 1798, on the war, on the conduct of the directory, &c.

Tableau de Rome, &c. A Description of Rome; Philosophical Observations on the present State of that Metropolis, its Government, Legislature, Religious Worship, the Character and Manners of the Inhabitants. By M. Olivier Polè (of Naples). Translated from the Italian. 8vo.—This little

pamphlet (for it consists of but eighty pages) contains the author's observations on Rome, during a residence of eleven months. The objects of his attention are sufficiently explained in the title, but we find nothing particularly new or interesting in the work.

Notices et Extraits, &c. Accounts and Extracts from the MSS of the National and other Libraries, published by the National Institute; being a Continuation of the Accounts and Extracts read to the Committee of the former Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres. Vol. V. 4to. Paris.—We have noticed the former volumes of this valuable collection in different parts of our Journal. The fifth volume commences with an account of the MS of Suidas's Lexicon, by M. Brequigny, and of several Greek MSS on chemistry and alchymy, by M. Ameilon. M. Levesque has collated the MS Anacreon of the Vatican with H. Stephens's edition, and M. Camus has communicated two articles full of bibliographic and philological remarks. The first relates to a MS of Aristotle's History of Animals; and the second, four MSS of a work in verse, presented by Emanuel Philé to Michael Paleologos. M. du Theil gives an account of a panegyric on the Holy Virgin, and of twenty-nine letters, composed by Theodore the Hyrtacynian. M. Langles has communicated three articles, the most interesting of which relates to the History of the celebrated Gengis Khan. M. Langles is employed on the subject of the Mantchou Tartar language; and gives an account of two hundred works in this tongue, accumulated in the National Library, promising also grammars and dialogues in it. He adds a short 'notice' of a collection of pieces in Turkish, Arabic and Persian, which contain many traits of history. M. Brequigny describes a MS which promised a new chronicle of Idacia, but which was published by Canisius before the edition of Sirmond. MM. Keralio, Camus, &c. give an account of the history of France in the middle age, and M. le Grand d'Aussy has explained, more particularly, the manners and customs of France in different centuries. This work does great credit to the national press. A variety of Arabian and Mantchou characters are elegantly printed or engraved.

Soirées Litéraires, &c. Literary Evenings, or New Translations of the most beautiful Pieces of Antiquity, &c. Vol. XIX. 8vo. Paris.—This, though styled the 19th volume, is still a separate work. It is a continuation of the Children's Library, and has appeared under different titles, as, The Evenings of the Hermitage, Evenings at Home, The Friend of Parents, Rambles, &c. some of which are translated from the English. The contents of this volume rise a little beyond the period of youth; since, after an invocation to Peace, we find an analysis of the work of Grotius De Jure Belli et Pacis. The

next article relates to Daniel Heinſius, whoſe tragedy of Herod the author has already tranſlated for the preſent collection. Next follows an extract from the Latin Menippean ſatire; and bibliographical notes, reſpecting unknown authors, from the ſame compiler: the latter had been often requeſted of him, to complete the biographical dictionaries, and are now firſt tranſlated into French. To theſe curious details are added the ſtate of literature in Belgium, from the tenth to the ſeventeenth century, followed by a table of the univerſities of Leyden, Douay, and Louvain, with an account of the learned men they have furniſhed. A Dialogue on Peace, where ſhe is ſuppoſed to ſpeak out of a tomb in which ſhe has been buried, and opinions on ſome new works, conclude this ſtrange unequal farrago.

Ariſtotelis Opera omnia, Græcè. Ad optimorum Exemplarium Fidem recenſuit, Annotationem Criticam, Librorum Argumenta, et novam Verſionem Latinam adjecit J. Th. Buhle. Vol. V. 8vo. Straſburg, ex Societate Bipontina.—We notice this volume juſt to remark, that the publication of the excellent collection of Claſſics which formerly appeared at Deux-Ponts is now transferred to Straſburg, under the care of profeſſor Euler, as before. M. Buhle, who is a profeſſor at Göttingen, explains, in the preface, the cauſes of the delay of this volume, which contains the Rhetoric and the Poetics of Ariſtotle, to which a Latin tranſlation is added in the margin.

Nouveaux Dialogues des Morts, &c. New Dialogues of the Dead, between the moſt famous Actors in the French Revolution, and various celebrated Men, ancient and modern. By F. Pagès. 8vo.—This work contains eighteen dialogues between thoſe already dead, and eight between living perſons. The interlocutors of the firſt kind are Demoſthenes and Mirabeau; Charles I. and Louis XVI; Catiline and Robeſpierre; Danton and Couthon; Bailly and Maleſherbes; Racine and Roucher; Barnave and Briſſot. Of the ſecond kind are Pitt and Fox, cardinal Maury and *the grand-maſter of the Order of Malta*; La Fayette, Dumouriez, Pichegru, and Suwarrow (now diſqualified for this claſs), &c. The characters are not however, in general, well underſtood or well ſupported.

Voyage de Vingt-quatre Heures, &c. Travels of Twenty-four Hours. By A. H. Kératry. 12mo. with Plates.—A derviſe deſired a ſultan to plunge his head into a tub of cold water, and the moment of immerſion was expanded to the events of a long and unhappy life. Thus M. Kératry and his prototype, Sterne, could extend a few hours through numerous pages. Sterne has hitherto, however, been unrivaled in England, and is ſtill ſo in France; but the preſent author has adopted his pure morality and genuine philanthropy. He trifles alſo with eaſe and freedom, and ridicules the follies of the age

with great propriety and addreſs. His epiſodes and digreſſions, like thoſe of Sterne, are too numerous, and, like thoſe of the facetious Yorick, not always equally happy or intereſting.

Voyage à Mortain, &c. A Journey to Mortain, in Proſe and Verſe, addreſſed to a Lady, by Louis Dubois, Citizen of Lizieux. 12mo. Alençon and Paris.—This journey is a feeble imitation of that of Chapelle, which it will be always difficult to forget, and dangerous to imitate.

Ardingello et les Iſles de la Félicité, &c. Ardingello and the Happy Iſlands, an Italian Hiſtory of the Sixteenth Century. Tranſlated from the German by Welzien and Faye. 12mo. Paris.—Since France has poſſeſſed ſome of the moſt valuable remains of the ancient ſculptures and painters, remains, in the language employed to ſoften robbery, 'which victory has confided to her,' it was neceſſary to give ſome information of their merit and value—'to hint (in the language of our own Bayes) the plot to the boxes.' Freſcobaldi, therefore, proſcribed in his own country, travels through Italy under the name of Ardingello, and deſcribes with enthuſiaſm and taſte the works of Raphael, Corregio, Michael Angelo, &c. The dryneſs of criticiſm is, however, relieved by the adventures of young Ardingello, which are nevertheleſs, on the whole, inſipid and unintereſting.

Contes et Opuſcules. Tales and Poems, in Verſe and Proſe, followed by ſome fugitive Pieces by Andrieux, of the National Inſtitute. 12mo. Paris.—This collection of M. Andrieux is humorous and pleaſing. The author imitates the lively careleſs manner of Voltaire, whom his flatterers aſſure him he equals. Whether a more ſerious age may make pleaſantries leſs enchanting we know not, but *we* can ſcarcely ſee a reſemblance. Voltaire's was a ſtudied eaſe and grace, even in his ſlighteſt works—our author's a ſlovenly deſhabille.

Les Helvétiens, &c. The Helvetians; a Poem in Eight Cantos, with Hiſtorical Notes. By C. F. P. Maſſon. 12mo. Paris.—In theſe ages of indolence, an epic poem of ſix or ſeven thouſand lines forms an epoch which will not ſoon be forgotten. It is however a ſingular compoſition. The poem itſelf is a narrative; the fabulous part, or the machinery, allegorical; and we do not think any part of it highly poetical or pleaſing. The ſubject of it is the war carried on by Charles the Raſh, duke of Burgundy, in the time of Louis XI. who terminates his career, and fortunately the poem, at the battle of Nanci, in 1477. The whole is told more ſimply, and in a much more intereſting manner, by his vaſſal Commines. Liberty is hackneyed through the whole piece; but we fear the Swiſs feel the contraſt too forcibly to be highly pleaſed with M. Maſſon's epic.

Idylles et Poëmes Champêtres de Geſner, avec la Traduc-

tion, &c. Idyllia and a Rural Poem of Gesner, with an interlineal Translation by M. Boulard. 2 vols. 1800.—This translation is a supplement to those formerly published, in the same manner, by the same author, under the title of an 'Elementary Course of the German Language.' The translation of the fables of Lessing was very successful. At the end are some pages of moral maxims in the Danish language, with an interlineal translation in French; and the author means to publish other Danish and Swedish works in the same manner. At the end of the volume the German is published separately.

Œuvres de J. M. Ph. Roland, &c. The Works of Madame Roland, Wife of the Ex-Minister of the Interior, containing her Memoirs, an Account of her private Life, &c. her Correspondence, Philosophical and Literary Works, Travels, &c.: to which is prefixed a Preliminary Discourse, by L. A. Champagneux. 3 vols. 8vo. with a Portrait by Nicolet.—The life of madame Roland, supposed to be, perhaps with truth, the minister, while her husband was the puppet, is well known to the English reader from the translation. We have only to notice the additions not yet published in our language. The first of these is 'Advice to my Daughter;' then follows an historical account of the revolution, which contains some secret, and some mysterious, anecdotes; and next, her last thoughts on the evening previous to her execution are subjoined. We have always conceived, that when these related to extraneous subjects, some ostentation dictated her employment and the publication. There is scarcely more than one character that can be wholly indifferent at that awful moment,—the atheist, who thinks it the last of his existence and consciousness; nor can even he always bear to look with apathy on the deprivation of what he may at least think advantages, though he will not admit them to be blessings. The detached subjects are—'The Soul,' 'Melancholy,' 'Solitude,' 'Religion,' 'Love,' 'Sensibility,' 'Liberty,' 'Socrates;' her journey to Saucis, and her other journeys in Switzerland and England. The last is peculiarly interesting, from the excellent picturesque descriptions it contains. On the whole, we still think, as we always have thought, that madame Roland acted a part, though probably without being conscious of it. She was raised above nature, and walked on the air—to her scaffold.

Eloge de Washington, &c. Eulogy on Washington. By J. F. Dubrocea. 12mo.—The author speaks of general Washington only historically, and thinks this the best eulogy. 'To say what a great man has done, to say it with dignity and zeal, is all that is required from a panegyrist.'

GERMANY.

Vertheidigung des Hygrometers, &c. Defence of the Hygrometer, and De Luc's Theory of Rain. By L. C. Lichtenberg, Counsellor of Legation, and F. Kries, Professor at Gotha. 8vo. 1800. Göttingen.—This publication owes its origin to a prize-essay, written by Mr. Zylius, and sanctioned by the academy of the sciences at Berlin, in the year 1795. In that essay the whole system of hygrometry, as well as De Luc's theory of rain, was attempted to be refuted, while its author endeavoured to re-establish the old doctrine respecting the solution of water in the atmosphere. M. Lichtenberg, whose memory will ever be dear to men of science, terminated his literary career with this production of his versatile genius, which soared alike through the enchanting regions of belles-lettres as the abstruse though more useful departments of physics. His inexhaustible fund of wit and humour ranked him among the most lively writers of the age; while his comprehensive and accurate knowledge of Nature, in her inmost recesses, entitled him to the general respect of his graver contemporaries, and of the numerous pupils who, for a long series of years, crowded his lectures on experimental philosophy in the university of Göttingen.—The present work, however, appears to be written with a considerable degree of indignation and acrimony; in a style, indeed, very different from the professor's former compositions, which generally abounded with pleasantry and good-humour, though they were occasionally marked by pointed satire and severe criticism. He is decidedly of opinion that the Royal Academy of Sciences has undeservedly bestowed the premium on M. Zylius, without, however, having compromised its learned members. And this apparent paradox M. Lichtenberg has endeavoured to explain by answering the following problem, which was proposed by the prize-essayist, in his memoir read before the society, and ordered to be printed:—'Whence do we learn, that all vapours are either pointed out by the hygrometer, or must have totally dispersed?'—To this question our author gives a very explicit and circumstantial answer, the result of which is as follows:—'The hygrometer,' says M. Lichtenberg, 'supports itself, in all its degrees between 0 and 100, *not* by its affinity to free water, but by its relation to vapour, in its different temperatures, as well as its respective distances from its maximum, through these variations of temperature. *Free* water, in the smallest quantity, always raises the hygrometer to 100°; and this effect is the *only* criterion of such water. Those who maintained the contrary, whether in the year 1795, or even in 1794, prior to the printing of this essay, betrayed an unpardonable ignorance of every progressive discovery made by the greatest men of

the age; while I am convinced that my affertions are confonant with the opinion of every inquirer who underftands the fubject.'

Philofophifche Abhandlungen, &c. Philofophical Effays on the Prevalence of Irreligion; together with Propofals for a rational Religious Education. By T. Gutman. Vol. I. of his pofthumous Works. 8vo. Zerbft. 1800.—This is another production of a judicious and enlightened clergyman, who has deeply reflected on the moft interefting fubject that can engage the attention of mankind. The author is of opinion that the frequent complaints which affault us refpecting the irreligion of the prefent age have arifen chiefly from the almoft general practice of confounding true religion with the eftablifhed church faith; and that fuch complaints would gradually ceafe, if morality and religion were reprefented not merely as amiable, but rather as dignified and venerable objects of purfuit. He recommends the cultivation of political fcience, together with the ftudy of man, in his relation as a fubject of the ftate; he enjoins the advantage of eftablifhing a certain difintereftednefs of foul from an early period of life. But fociety will then alone be moft happy when the fymbols of faith fhall contain only the fundamental principles of morals and religion. Thefe reflexions lead him to the queftion which in a manner fpontaneoufly occurs while treating of religious education: '*What is the chief end of the prefent exiftence of man?*' In anfwering this problem, he firft attempts to prove the neceffity of a religious education for attaining that end, from the influence of religion on the moral character and happinefs of man; he fhows that a moral fyftem of religion, and not a religious fyftem of morals, can alone conduct us aright to the ultimate object of our creation: that fuch an education muft not be founded on a *mere* belief in revelation; becaufe this implicit reliance would generate fuperftition, diftruft of the cleareft dictates of reafon, a propenfity to bigotry, fanaticifm, and infuriated fectarifm, while it could not fail to be detrimental to the exercife of a true and unreftrained moral principle. Hence he derives the propriety of *concluding* a religious education with a rational explanation of the facred writings; and, contrary to the prevailing method, deprecates the cuftom of initiating *children* into the myfteries of the Bible. The Bible he ventures to pronounce a collection of religious documents bequeathed to pofterity by men more or lefs enlightened by nature, and intended to inftruct us in the knowledge of the primitive world; and confequently that we are entitled to inquire into the authenticity of their accounts. There is a ftrange intermixture in this publication of reverence for revealed religion, and the indefeafible right of human fcrutiny carried to its utmoft extreme. We do not know whether the orthodox or the fceptic will be moft pleafed with it; but we can eafily difcover in the

author's mind an attachment to the Kantian theology: and we cannot but strongly discourage the translation of all such works as the present, which contain pretended maxims of pure reason, and novel propositions tending to increase the number of vague sceptics, or, in other words, infidels, destitute of principles, and consequently of morality.

Der Bericht des Johannes von Jesu dem Messia. The Gospel of St. John respecting Jesus the Messiah. Translated, with Remarks, by J. A. Bolten, First adjunct Pastor at the Metropolitan Church of Altona. 8vo. Altona.—The principal object of the present work is to prove that Jesus is the true Messiah, and that the memoirs of his life, by St. John, were originally written in the Syriac language. As we cannot enter upon an investigation of the merits of this conjecture, by the confirmation or refutation of which the authenticity of the gospel will not be affected, we must acknowledge that M. Bolten's translation possesses great merit; and, as the remarks subjoined to it form a perpetual commentary, it will be read with satisfaction by every classical divine. But though we differ from the commentator, who endeavours to persuade us, by a variety of passages translated into Syriac, that his hypothesis is well founded, yet we admit that the Greek dialect of St. John abounds in *Syriacisms*. The ingenious translator, however, has thus rendered great service to Oriental literature; as he has not neglected to consult on all difficult passages the different versions composed by Eastern writers. According to his opinion, it was the intention of St. John to transmit to posterity not only a short and authentic biography of Jesus, together with the substance of his moral doctrine, but also to convince the infidels of his divine mission, and to prevail upon them to embrace the Christian religion.

Musen Almanach, &c. The Almanack of the Muses for 1800. Published by Seiller. 16mo. Tubingen.—This little annual publication is accompanied with a calendar; but its most interesting part is some pleasing and elegant poetry. The first is a long poem in six cantos, entitled 'The Sisters of Lesbos.' It fills 182 pages, and is adorned with five elegant engravings, designed by Meyer and engraved by Bottiger of Dresden. The story is interesting, even without the aid of poetry or ornament. The laws of Lesbos gave all the property to the elder sister, and the younger ones depended on her, and were reduced almost to a state of servitude. Simætha, however, distinguished for her beauty, her tenderness, and genius, treated her younger sister Lycoris as a friend. She had been deprived of her lover by shipwreck, while engaged in commercial pursuits, but his place in her heart was soon supplied by Diocles. On a further acquaintance Diocles could not, however, resist the superior graces of the young Lycoris, who, on her side, was equally enamoured of Diocles. Simætha saw this,

and took the generous resolution of sacrificing her own happiness to her sister's, should the attachment, as she suspected, prove mutual. This was soon discovered; for Lycoris fainted at the altar, on her sister's proceeding to marry Diocles; and Simætha, now convinced, burned her own garlands, and persuaded her father to unite the two lovers.

Most of the authors are distinguished only by initial letters; but the editor (M. Schiller), MM. Matheson, Kosegarten, and some other poets of the first class, are particularly pointed out and sufficiently known.

HOLLAND.

Description de quelques Appareils Chimiques, &c. Description of several new Chemical Machines for an Apparatus, improved by the Teylerian Society; together with Experiments made with that Apparatus. By M. Van Marum, Doctor of Philosophy and Medicine. 4to. with Plates. Haarlem.—Although the experiments here related have partly been published before, especially that in chap. I. respecting the composition of water, supposed to consist of oxygen and hydrogen, which, if satisfactorily demonstrated, is the grand pillar of the French antiphlogistic theory, and the particulars of which, together with an account of the apparatus employed on the occasion, were first published in 'Berthollet's Annales de Chimie,' for February 1792; yet we are much indebted to the ingenious Van Marum for this instructive publication, containing a summary of the chemical pursuits to which the philosophers of Haarlem have directed their attention. In the second chapter we find a description of a more simplified hydrostatic gasometer; which was likewise announced in the work before quoted, for September 1792. Chap. III. treats of an apparatus adapted for convenient gas-receivers, to institute a variety of experiments. Chap. IV. describes another apparatus, by which the generation of phosphoric acid is proved, from the combustion of phosphorus in oxygen gas. Chap. V. contains an account of an apparatus to prove that carbonic acid is produced by the combustion of carbon in oxygen gas. Chap. VI. an apparatus for analysing the productions obtained from oils subjected to combustion. Chap. VII. experiments on the decomposition of spirit of wine, with the description of an apparatus. The subsequent four chapters contain explanations of similar contrivances, namely, one for the oxydation of mercury and other metals which easily assume the liquid form; another, for the oxydation of iron; a third, for demonstrating that several dropping fluids adopt the gaseous form when they are exposed to an air sufficiently rarefied; and lastly, a description of a very simple air pump, which is adapted not only for a quick and complete extraction of air, but likewise for its condensation. On the whole, this work amply evinces the

laudable and unabated zeal of its author; who, notwithſtanding the political convulſions under which his country is now groaning, continues to cultivate the uſeful ſciences, while he gives us new proofs of his taſte and erudition, equally creditable to the inſtitution over which he preſides, and to his oppreſſed countrymen.

Verzameling van Rapporten, &c. A Collection of the Reports and Tranſactions relative to the Interſections and Water-works which have been carried into effect ſince the Convention of 1771, for the Promotion of internal Navigation, as well as with a view to prevent the Inundations of open Rivers by a better regulated Diſtribution of their Waters. Publiſhed at the Expence of the Provincial Committee of Holland, 2 vols. Folio, with Plates.—This ſplendid national work contains Byland's labours in interſecting and draining the rivers Waal and Yſſel; it proves that the ſinking republic ſtill poſſeſſes excellent hydrotechnical architects, as well as public ſpirit and reſources to undertake and publiſh magnificent works; in ſhort, that the ſcience which has moſtly contributed to Holland's former ſplendor and greatneſs is not yet entirely neglected. The learned editor of this publication, Mr. Brunings, the preſident of the bureau for regulating the water-works of the Batavian republic, deſerves our thanks, as well as thoſe of poſterity, for having preſented the world with this valuable collection, of which he has promiſed a ſpeedy continuation.

Verhandelingen van het Genootſchap, &c. Tranſactions of the Society for defending the Chriſtian Worſhip, eſtabliſhed at the Hague, for the Year 1797.—Beſides the uſual introduction, in which the diſtribution of prizes, together with the new queſtions propoſed on the third of Auguſt are announced for the ſubſequent year, and two other treatiſes to which the reſpective gold and ſilver medals were adjudged, we meet here with a deſultory and tireſome oration of Rümmerink, who endeavours to prove that Jeſus Chriſt, being the principal object of hiſtory, as far as this is contained in the Bible, is peculiarly entitled to our attention. The Dutch orator is very diffuſe in his arguments; he dwells particularly on the ſeed of the woman, who was deſtined to bruiſe the head of the ſerpent, or, allegorically, of the devil; and gives, on the whole, ſufficient proofs of his incapacity to explain the ſymbolical doctrines of religion, and to apply them to moral purpoſes, according to the original intention of the ſacred writers.

Chriſtopheri Saxi Oratio honoraria in Legis Regiæ Patronos, &c. An honorary (Thankſgiving) Oration reſpecting the Favourers of abſolute Monarchy, delivered in an Aſſembly of the Academical Senate, on the Abdication of his public Functions. By C. Sax. 4to. Utrecht.—Of this highly intereſting ſpeech, which was delivered by a republican veteran at the advanced age of eighty-four with all the ardour and

energy of youth, we are induced to give our readers a short account. Whether we consider the political complexion of this public address, or the strength of reasoning supported by historical erudition in which it abounds, we cannot refrain from saying that it is one of the most extraordinary productions of the Dutch press. Although the venerable author is obviously prepossessed in favour of a republican form of government, and endeavours to represent monarchies in the most odious colours, yet we must differ from him as to the stability of the leading principles; because the errors and defects he exclusively attributes to kings are equally imputable to the aristocratical and democratical constitutions, or rather to the persons who are intrusted with power. But we do not hesitate to overlook all the virulent charges, dressed in oratorial flowers, of which this sage orator has availed himself, as they are exclusively derived from ancient history, so that he scarcely alludes to modern times: such concessions we are inclined to make the more readily, as a similar speech delivered several years ago, and couched in more abusive language, by Peter Burman, is still fresh in our memory. This writer is a determined enemy to the *lex regia*; and we must refer the curious reader to his oration, p. 110 of the Hague edition, where, among other assertions, he says 'in rebus publicis suavius vivi quam in regnis.' Our author previously endeavours to ascertain what the advocates and panegyrists of royalism understand by *lex regia*; he then submits their opinion to the tribunal of reason and the history of empires, from which we are unable to draw any favourable conclusion, either respecting the moral origin or use of legal power; so that its hurtful tendency to mankind, as well as its inadmissibility, become equally conspicuous; and lastly, he endeavours to apply his acute observations to the newly-established Batavian republic.

Reizen door Palestina, &c. Travels through Palestine, in the Form of entertaining Letters; with a new Map of the present Situation of that Country. By S. Van Emdre, Pastor of Wageningen, &c. Vol. II. 8vo.—As we are not in possession of the first volume of these Travels, we can speak only of the letters contained in the second. It begins with the seventh, in which the author describes his journey from Jerusalem to Nazareth; in the eighth, he gives an account of his excursion from Nazareth to Mount Lebanon; in the ninth, he relates his expedition along the sea-coast from north to south; in the tenth, he treats of the climate of Palestine, its different seasons, heat and cold, rain, dews, winds, &c.; in the eleventh, of its fertility in corn, vegetables, fruit trees, its production of animals, birds, fishes, &c.; in the twelfth, of the inhabitants of Palestine, the Mahomedans, Christians, Jews, Samaritans, and Druses; lastly, in the thirteenth letter, he describes the manners and customs of its inhabitants, together with their implements

of agriculture, their houses, drefs, female ornaments, falutations, ceremonies at table, and various national peculiarities. The whole is illuftrated by frequent quotations from Scripture, and ably contrafted with the accounts of other modern travellers.

Anthologia Græca, cum Verfione Latina Hugonis Grotii, &c. The Greek Anthology, with the Latin Verfion of Hugo Grotius, edited by H. De Bofch. 3 vols. 4to. Ultrajecti. It is publifhed alfo in folio.—This valuable republication is fomewhat debafed by petty controverfy; for editors, as well as poets, are a *genus irritabile*. The tranflations of Grotius, however, have never before appeared. Their eventful hiftory is fubjoined, and the copy employed was that of the younger Burman, collated with the original copy fent to Holland to be printed juft before the death of Grotius. A medallion of the tranflator is prefixed in an engraved frontifpiece, and followed by 112 elegiac verfes, addreffed to the Genius of Grotius, by the editor. The Prolegomena of Grotius contain only thirteen pages, but they are interefting and inftructive, on the origin of the epigram, &c. The reft of the firft volume comprehends the firft and fecond book of Planudes, with the tranflations of Grotius on the oppofite page.

The fecond volume is dedicated to Heyne, and M. De Bofch there explains the affiftance he has procured for this edition. Thefe we fhall enlarge on, if, as we defign, we are able to refume this work. The third and fourth books of Planudes follow.

The third volume is dedicated to Cornelius van Lennep and Daniel Hooft, friends of the author. It commences by an eulogy on friendfhip, a fentiment too often cooled by a difference of political opinions, and inftanced in that of Grotius and Heinfius. This volume contains the remainder of Planudes, viz. the fifth, fixth, and feventh books, with four fupplements. The firft of thefe was publifhed by Aldus Manutius at the end of the feventh book; but, as Grotius had exhaufted this fupplement in the Franckfort edition, only the two epigrams which Henry Stephens had fuppreffed are now printed. The fecond fupplement is that of Henry Stephens, and contains ninety-three pages. The third contains the infcriptions in verfe, extracted from Gruter; the fourth, forty-five epigrams from the Byzantine and other works collected by Salmafius. Some of the Idyllia of Theocritus, with notes, various readings, &c. conclude the work.

Griekfch Leesboek voor eerft Beginnenden, &c. Greek Exercifes in Reading, defigned for the Ufe of Beginners, together with a complete Regifter of the Words which occur in it. On the Plan of the German Edition of F. Gedike. 8vo. —This is only a new edition of the well-known work ftated in the title-page; and as it is reprinted for the ufe of the grammar-fchools in Holland, where no fuch fchool-book had

hitherto been publiſhed, it has been provided with an appropriate Greek and Dutch regiſter of words and phraſes.

Callimachi Elegiarum Fragmenta, cum Elegiâ Catulli Callimacheâ, &c. Fragments of the Elegies of Callimachus; with an Elegy written by Catullus on that Author. Collected and illuſtrated by L. C. Valckenaer. Edited, and furniſhed with a Preface and the neceſſary Indexes, by J. Luzac. 8vo. Leyden. —Whoever remembers the encomium expreſſed by Valckenaer in one of his juvenile productions* on the collection of the Fragments of Callimachus, edited by our celebrated countryman Bentley, will expect to find in this volume the mature improvements of a veteran critic, who at an advanced age would not hazard the reputation he has juſtly acquired by his diverſified claſſical labours. Indeed ſuch expectations will be amply gratified. The Batavian critic and commentator of ancient claſſics has lately paid the debt of nature, and his academical chair is honourably filled by the editor of the preſent volume, profeſſor Luzac. In his 'Exercitationes Academicæ' he announces this work, 'conſummatiſſimum Valckenarii opus;' and we may ſafely add that the Britiſh claſſical reader will do juſtice to this learned foreigner, and acknowledge the ſuperiority of his edition over that of Bentley, or any other hitherto publiſhed. To ſupply the future biographer of Valckenaer with a few materials for ſo deſirable a work, we ſhall here obſerve that he has ſufficiently evinced his talents for claſſical criticiſm in his maſterly edition of the 'Fragments of Euripides;' but at a ſtill earlier period of life, in his contributions to 'Koppier's Obſervata Philologica;' and next, in his acute remarks on 'Erneſti's Callimachus.'

SWITZERLAND.

Récréations tirées de l'Hiſtoire Naturelle, &c. Amuſements drawn from Natural Hiſtory, tranſlated from the German of M. Wilheim, of Augſburg. Vol. I. of the Claſs of Inſects. 8vo. with Plates. Baſle.—We notice this work, though a tranſlation, becauſe it deſerves to be better known. It is an excellent elementary introduction to natural hiſtory, and the preſent volume is equally uſeful in the ſcience of entomology. It begins with a ſuitable introduction, and an inſtructive table relating to the coleopteræ. The plates are admirably coloured, and the whole ſeems to want nothing but a Latin and French table of the ſpecies contained in the volume.

DENMARK.

Entwurf einer Pflanzen Phyſiologie, &c. Outlines of a Phyſiology of Plants; founded upon the modern Theories of Natural Philoſophy and Chemiſtry. Tranſlated from the Daniſh, with many Additions and Alterations, by J. A. Mar-

* Vid. Not. ad Schol. Leiden. in Hom. Ill. xxii. v. 398, p. 72. where Valckenaer ſays of Bentley's edition of Callimachus, 'Opus eſt perfectiſſimum, quod homines publici reverentes à reliquiis poëtarum colligendis deterruit.'

kulier' 8vo. Copenhagen.—According to the preface, the author of this work propoſes to collect and arrange whatever has been written, obſerved, conteſted, and admitted as true, reſpecting the economy of plants, ſince we have been inſtructed by the works of Malpighi, Grew, Hales, Du Hamel, Bonnet, Ingenhouſz, Sennebier, Humboldt, Van Marum, Brugmans, Uſlar, and Grill. His principal intention avowedly is, to communicate to his countrymen the ſcattered reſults derived from a great number of obſervations and experiments; to combine them into a ſyſtematic order; and to point out the progreſs we have made in this important branch of phyſics, or the means of ſupplying the chaſms and deficiencies ſtill exiſting. From this explicit declaration it is obvious that, though the ſubject he has choſen does not widely differ from that implied in the 'Phytologia, or Philoſophy of Agriculture,' lately written by Dr. Darwin, the Daniſh naturaliſt does not venture into the ſame boundleſs field of theoretical ſpeculation, to furniſh us with any original hypotheſes or conjectures. Nor do we find that either the author or tranſlator has penetrated deeply into the receſſes of vegetable nature; and as to the merits of the latter, it even appears to us, from ſeveral of his ſhallow annotations, that he is not ſufficiently converſant with the principles of *modern* chemiſtry. Nevertheleſs this ſmall volume contains nearly all that relates to the economy of plants, and may be read with advantage by thoſe who are unacquainted with the authors before mentioned.

Commentatio de Liquoris Amnii aſperæ Arteriæ Fœtuum Humanorum Naturâ et Usû, &c. A Treatiſe on the Nature and Uſe of the Liquor Amnii found in the Trachea of the Human Fœtus, and its Influence on the Life of new-born Infants, as well as its Importance in determining doubtful Caſes in Medical Juriſprudence. With an Appendix, containing ſome general Obſervations on this remarkable Fluid. By P. Scheel, M.D. Copenhagen.—An inaugural diſſertation, which contains many original and inſtructive remarks. The ingenious author was induced to inſtitute this inquiry in conſequence of a diſcovery made by Meſſrs. Abildgardt, Heroldt, and Rafn, who found in the trachea of the brutal fœtus, namely, that of dogs and cows, a fluid ſimilar to the liquor amnii. On diſſecting and examining the bodies of ſeven infants, two of which were prematurely born with ſigns of life, though they died immediately after birth, and five, on the contrary, were ſtill-born, Dr. Scheel obſerved that the aſpera arteria contained more or leſs of a viſcid yellow or green coloured fluid: in one of theſe ſtill-born infants, after a difficult turn, the trachea was filled with a yellow and ſomewhat gelatinous fluid, in every reſpect analogous to the liquor amnii; in another caſe, where this liquor had acquired a dark green colour from the evacuated meconium, the trachea contained a fluid exactly ſimilar to the

former; and laſtly, in two other infants, one of which was ſmothered under heavy blankets immediately after birth, and for want of aſſiſtance, though it had doubtleſs reſpired for a ſhort time, while atmoſpheric air had been introduced, without ſucceſs, into the lungs of the other—the fluid of the trachea in both appeared foaming. He further remarked that this liquor bore a perfect ſimilarity to that of the amnion, in its colour, ſmell, taſte, and conſiſtence: his chemical experiments, made with the ſmall quantities he could obtain of this fluid, alſo convinced him that its conſtituent parts agreed with thoſe of the former.

SPAIN.

Cavanillis Icones, &c. Cavanilles' Plates and Deſcriptions of Plants which grow ſpontaneouſly in Spain, or are cultivated in its Gardens. Volumes IV. and V. Folio. Madrid.—We have only to notice the proſecution of this very ſplendid work, as we have mentioned the deſign and announced the former volumes. The fourth and fifth volumes are equally rich and beautiful with the preceding. They contain a deſcription of 240 new ſpecies, many of which belong to genera not before known, which are well deſcribed and ſcientifically eſtabliſhed.

The deſcriptions are unuſually clear and exact. The country of each plant and the time of flowering are carefully diſtinguiſhed; and, at the end of each deſcription, obſervations reſpecting the uſe of the plant, as well as its connexion with or difference from other ſpecies of the ſame genus, are ſubjoined.

Pharmaciæ Elementa, &c. Elements of Pharmacy, founded on the Principles of modern Chemiſtry. By Francis Cardonnel, M. D. &c. Barcelona.—Elementary works of pharmacy adapted to the later diſcoveries are not common, nor ſhould we have expected to have received one of the beſt and moſt ſcientific from Spain. The preſent work neverthelefs, though too ſhort, and, on the whole, incomplete, merits great commendation. It is divided into ſeven chapters. The firſt contains the preliminary pharmaceutical inſtructions. In the ſecond, the author treats of the compoſition of medicines in general. The third is confined to the choice and knowledge of ſimple drugs. The fourth, to the drying and preſerving vegetable ſubſtances, as well as the time they may be expected to retain their properties. This chapter is extremely uſeful and valuable. In the fifth the moſt common pharmaceutical operations are deſcribed. In the ſixth the officinal pharmaceutical preparations, and in the ſeventh extemporaneous preparations from phyſicians' preſcriptions, are conſidered. A pharmaceutiſt who would practice 'with diſtinction', ought, in M. Cardonnel's opinion, to have ſtudied mathematics, natural hiſtory, experimental philoſophy, and chemiſtry. The notes are valuable, and ſometimes extenſive. The author appears well acquainted with the lateſt improvements in chemical ſcience.

A REVIEW

OF

PUBLIC AFFAIRS,

FROM

the Beginning of SEPTEMBER, 1800, to the CLOSE of the YEAR and of the CENTURY.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

WHEN power and dominion attend the naval or military exertions of a community, and when a great increase of its wealth follows the extension of its commerce, that nation is supposed, in the ordinary estimate of human affairs, to be in a flourishing state. But appearances are sometimes fallacious; and external prosperity may be accompanied with interior misery. Many individuals may riot in opulence, and dazzle the eyes of the populace with splendor and parade; others, by the medium of paper-credit, may be enabled to make fortunate speculations, and to substitute real for fictitious wealth. But, notwithstanding these flattering symptoms, the middle class in the same community may find great difficulty in procuring the comforts of life, and the inferior orders may frequently be harassed by a want even of the necessaries of subsistence. To these it can afford little gratification to be informed that the trade of the country is extensive, when it is not so generally beneficial in its effects as with proper management it might be rendered. They can scarcely credit what they do not feel; or, if they fully admit the existence of extraordinary wealth among their countrymen, they lament the imperfect use to which such acquisitions are applied; they lament that a channel, which ought to be wide and diffusive, should be narrowed by selfishness, avarice, and dishonesty. They have reason to complain, that, even in articles of the first necessity, the markets are swayed by rapacious traders, who, not content with moderate profit, combine to fix an enormous price, that they may rapidly enrich themselves while the poor are starving around them—who, in the midst of plenty, create an artificial scarcity; or, if there should be a real deficiency, aggravate its mischievous effects by sinister arts and un-

principled monopoly—and who, while they affect to be 'honorable men,' have not the least pretensions to the praise of humanity, probity, or patriotism. That the arts of such men principally occasioned that inordinate augmentation of the price of the necessaries of life, which formed a frequent topic of conversation at the beginning of the period comprehended in our present sketch, few will venture to deny. That the war was another cause may also be affirmed, whatever may be said by the advocates of anti-gallican hostility; for, if we draw an instance solely from the income-tax, which avowedly originated in the war, we must be sensible of the necessity of a general advance of price imposed by that tax, which abridges the common comforts of a great number of individuals, who, even before that addition to their burthens, could scarcely provide for their subsistence. To these leading causes we may unfortunately add a third—the occurrence of seasons less favourable than could have been wished.

After the suppression of the disturbances arising from the causes which we have stated, the liverymen of London took the lead in petitioning his majesty to convene the parliament without delay, that measures might be taken for the removal of the distress of his people. As it was not the act of the corporation, the king refused to receive the petition upon his throne, in consequence of a resolution which he had formed at the time of the American war, when remonstrances were more frequent than they now are; but, when the common-council voted a petition for the same purpose, he graciously received it, and intimated that he had already given orders for an early meeting of the legislature. He afterwards published a proclamation, recommending rigid œconomy to his subjects.

The failure of the negotiations for peace embittered the disappointment of those who severely felt the effects of the dearth of provision. The truce between France and Austria had led to a correspondence between the consular government and the British cabinet. Of that temporary communication we can now treat more particularly than the secresy of the correspondence allowed us to speak in our last survey. In consequence of a notification from baron Thugut, that lord Minto (on the 9th of August) had signified the desire of his Britannic majesty to be included in the negotiation, M. Otto, the French agent or commissary for the exchange of prisoners in England, was authorised to demand an explanation of the proposals of the court of London, and to request that a truce should be immediately concluded between the British and French armies and fleets. Captain George, in a conference with the agent, declared the king's readiness to send a plenipotentiary to any place which might be appointed for a congress; but intimated, that an armistice, with regard to naval operations, had at

no time been adjusted between Britain and France during a negotiation for peace, or before preliminaries had been signed; that it therefore could not be considered as a necessary step to negotiation; and that, from the disputes to which it might give rise, it might even obstruct rather than promote a pacification. M. Otto answered, that France would insist on a truce with Great-Britain, and that, indeed, the continuance of the German armistice would depend on the conclusion of a similar agreement with the English, as the advantages derivable from the latter would form an equivalent for the obvious disadvantages of the truce with Austria. In a reply, dated the 4th of September, to a note from lord Grenville, he represented the intervention of England as giving such a complexion to the question of peace, that it was impossible for the French government to prolong the subsisting armistice, unless his Britannic majesty would render it common to the three powers; adding, that, if the proposed truce should not be concluded before the 11th of September, hostilities would be renewed with Austria, and the first consul would no longer be able to consent, with regard to that power, to any other than a separate peace. He afterwards presented a *projet* for an armistice, importing that the ships of Great-Britain and France should enjoy a freedom of navigation, as before the war; that Belle-isle, Malta, and Alexandria, should be in a similar predicament with Ulm, Philipsburg, and Ingolstadt, all French or neutral vessels being permitted to supply each garrison with provisions and stores; and that the squadrons which formed the blockade of Flushing, Brest, Cadiz, and Toulon, should return into their own harbours, or at least retire from the respective coasts. This plan was deemed by the British court too advantageous to the French; and lord Grenville, in a note to the commissary, condemned it as repugnant to the obvious and established principle of an armistice, by which neither party ought to acquire fresh advantages or new means of annoying the enemy. He then offered a *contre-projet*, more nearly corresponding with that principle of equality on which alone his sovereign would consent to treat. It prohibited all means of defence from being conveyed into the island of Malta, or any of the ports of Egypt, but allowed the necessaries of life to be introduced for fourteen days at a time: it provided for the discontinuance of the blockade of Brest, Toulon, and other French ports, but tended to prevent all naval or military stores from being conveyed thither by sea, and the ships of war in those ports from being removed to any other station. These propositions were not satisfactory to the French, who wished to obtain much greater advantages. After arguing against the plan, their government offered this alternative:—If Great-Britain would agree to a separate negotiation, her scheme would be

adopted; but, if she should insist on a general negotiation, the French *projet* must be accepted. Lord Grenville, on the 20th of September, declared against all other terms than those which the king had offered, and which, he said, involved considerable sacrifices on the part of Great-Britain. Otto now delivered a second plan, by which, among other alterations, small ships of war were to be allowed to go out of the French ports, and six frigates were to be permitted to sail to Egypt, discharge their cargoes at Alexandria, and return without being searched. On the 25th, Mr. Hammond had a long conference with M. Otto; but the result was unfavourable to the wishes of the friends of peace. At length, on the 8th of October, the French agent intimated, that, as some important events had completely changed the basis on which the proposed truce was to have been established, the general negotiation was at an end; but that the first consul was disposed to receive any overtures for a separate treaty with Great-Britain. To this proposal a decided negative was given; and thus the hope of a speedy pacification for this country vanished into air.

The conduct of the French government, on this occasion, deserves greater censure than that of the British court; or we may rather say, that no blame is imputable to the latter for the ill success of the conferences and communications. The concessions of our ministry appear to have been carried to as great an extent as reason and honour could justify; while the French were too eagerly desirous of advantage to pay a proper regard to the just principles of reciprocity, or to the established law of nations.

That island, which the French so earnestly wished to retain, at length became subject to the power of their adversaries. Brigadier-general Graham for some time superintended the blockade of La Valette, the chief fortress of Malta; but the conquest was not achieved before major-general Pigot landed on the island with a reinforcement. Provisions being very scarce, two frigates sailed out of the harbour on the 24th of August, with a part of the garrison; and one of them soon became a prize to the English. Alarmed at the increasing difficulties of subsistence, Vaubois, the governor, called a council to deliberate on the state of affairs; and it was the opinion of the officers, that, as only bread remained for the support of the garrison, and no hope of succour existed, no disgrace could be incurred by a surrender. A capitulation was therefore proposed; and, on the 5th of September, such terms were adjusted as allowed the conveyance of the troops to Marseilles (though they were to be considered as prisoners of war), and provided for the protection and security of the inhabitants of all descriptions. Thus, after a blockade of two years, the French were dispossessed of a post of high importance, an island formidably strengthened both by art and nature.

At the time of the publication of this intelligence, an official ſtatement appeared of a naval enterpriſe, which had been repreſented in an objectionable point of view by the Spaniſh court. It being reported that two ſhips were receiving ſtores in the road of Barcelona for the relief of Malta, lord Keith ſent a detachment for the purpoſe of taking or deſtroying them. The attempt was as ſucceſsful as it was ſpirited. By the exertions of captain Hillyer and lieutenant Schomberg, the two ſhips (each of 22 guns) were captured with ſmall loſs. In the Spaniſh account of the action it was aſſerted, that a Swediſh captain had been compelled to receive into his veſſel a party of Britiſh officers and ſeamen, and to have it towed by chaloupes under the cannon of the batteries of Barcelona; that it was then employed in an attack upon the Spaniards, who, not ſuſpecting that a neutral ſhip had enemies on board, were unprepared for a reſolute defence of the two veſſels, and were conſequently ſurpriſed into a ſurrender. Such conduct was loudly condemned by the king of Spain, by whom the Swedes were inſtigated to demand ſatisfaction of the Britiſh court; but, as the alleged circumſtances do not appear to have occurred, no apology is neceſſary, nor can any conceſſions be expected.

Soon after the reduction of Malta, Curaçao, an iſland ſituated near the continent of South America, was ſurrendered by the Dutch to the ſubjects of Great-Britain, for temporary occupancy rather than for permanent poſſeſſion. A body of French had ſeiſed the weſtern part of the iſland, and proceeded to take meaſures for the acquiſition of the whole; but the governor, preferring Britiſh to French protection, took an opportunity of informing captain Watkins of the Néreïde, that he would permit the Engliſh to garriſon the forts which commanded the capital, if they would aſſiſt him in the expulſion of the French. The intruders threatened to ſtorm the principal fort; but they prudently forbore to execute their menaces; and, on the 22d of September, their whole body retired from the iſland. Eleven French and ſeven Spaniſh ſhips were found in the harbour, beſides many other veſſels. In the agreement of ſurrender, it was ſtipulated that the inhabitants ſhould enjoy the rights and privileges allowed to the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty in the Weſt Indies; and, in particular, that they might have the benefit of a free trade with the Spaniards in that part of the world.

In the following month, lord Keith and ſir Ralph Abercrombie appeared with a fleet and army in the neighbourhood of Cadiz, for the purpoſe of deſtroying all the veſſels in that port, and inflicting other damage on the Spaniards. Alarmed at the appearance of this armament, at a time when a peſtilential diſorder raged in the town, the governor, in a letter which was both pathetic and ſpirited, conjured

the British commanders not to add the horrors of war to the miseries of disease, declaring at the same time, that, if an attack should be made, the resistance would be of the most obstinate nature, and might perhaps terminate in the ruin of the assailants. Lord Keith and his military associate replied, that, as the ships in the port were to be employed in prolonging the calamities of Europe, an attack could only be averted by a surrender of those vessels. This proposal being rejected by the governor with indignation, arrangements were made for a descent; but, when it was found that the precautions of the enemy, and the strength of the works, were adequate to the defence of the place, the danger of infection being also taken into consideration, the British armament retired.

Among other incidents connected with the maritime service, the capture of two frigates in August, and the havoc made near Ancona, may be briefly mentioned.

La Concorde and La Médée, after a course of depredation on the coast of Africa, were cruising near the Brasilian coast, when they were descried by captain Bulteel of the Belliqueux, who soon enforced the surrender of the former, while the latter struck her colours to two of the ships under his conduct. On the Adriatic coast, captain Rickett took severe vengeance, by order of lord Keith, for the arrest of an officer who was carrying dispatches. The municipality of Cesenatico having been guilty of this breach of the law of nations, all the vessels within the mole were sunk or burned, the two piers consumed, and the harbour rendered useless.

From these exploits our attention is called to the more important concerns of legislative policy. When the parliament assembled, on the 11th of November, the king expressed his earnest desire, that, by the care and wisdom of the two houses, all such measures might be adopted as should appear best calculated to alleviate the severe pressure occasioned by the high price of provisions, and to prevent the danger of its recurrence, by promoting, as far as possible, the permanent extension and improvement of agriculture. He hinted, that the best mode of encouraging the importation of all kinds of grain required the earliest consideration, and that the state of the laws respecting the commerce in the various articles of provision would properly form the next object of deliberation. If the members should have reason to think that the 'evil necessarily arising from unfavourable seasons had been increased by any undue combinations, or fraudulent practices, for the sake of adding unfairly to the price,' he hoped that they would effectually provide for the prevention of such abuses; intimating, at the same time, that they ought to distinguish practices of this nature from the 'regular and long-established course of trade which experience had shown to be indispensable, in the present state of society, for the supply of the markets,

and for the ſubſiſtence of his people.' Referring to the late diſturbances, he declared that 'thoſe malicious and diſaffected perſons, who cruelly took advantage of the exiſting difficulties to excite the people to a violation of the laws and of the public peace, were in the preſent circumſtances doubly criminal, as ſuch proceedings tended to increaſe, in the higheſt degree, the evil complained of, and endangered the permanent tranquillity of the country, on which the well-being of the induſtrious claſſes of the community muſt always principally depend.' Paſſing to the ſubject of the recent communications between him and the French government, he aſſerted his earneſt deſire of peace, and lamented that his wiſhes had been fruſtrated by the determination of the enemy to enter only on a ſeparate negotiation, in which he could not engage, conſiſtently with public faith, or with a due regard to the permanent ſecurity of Europe. Whenever the diſpoſition of the French ſhould afford a proſpect of an honourable peace, he would promote it to the utmoſt of his power; but, while ſuch a peace was unattainable, he truſted that his parliament would ſupport him with the ſame firmneſs and loyalty which had been ſignally evinced during the whole progreſs of a very important conteſt.

The addreſs of thanks for this ſpeech was propoſed by the duke of Somerſet, who chiefly recommended an inquiry into the beſt means of reducing the enormous price of proviſions. Lord Hobart ſpoke more copiouſly on the ſame ſubject, and denied that the evil aroſe from the war. On the topic of peace, he obſerved, that, though he had voted againſt treating with Bonaparte while the conſular government was in its infancy, it might not be impolitic to negotiate at preſent; but that his majeſty ought by no means to agree to a ſeparate treaty. Lord Holland concurred in opinion with the duke of Portland, who, in a letter communicated to the public, condemned the clamour which had been excited againſt ſuppoſed monopoliſts, and deprecated all attempts to interfere in the operations of the dealers in corn. But with the general conduct of the miniſters he continued to be ſo diſguſted, that he conſidered their removal from office as neceſſary for the honour and welfare of the country, and the attainment of a ſolid or ſecure peace. The majority of the peers, however, did not coincide with his lordſhip, whoſe amendment, relative to a change of adminiſtration, was rejected on a diviſion.

In the houſe of commons, when ſir John Wrotteſley and Mr. Dickenſon had moved and ſeconded an addreſs—when ſir Francis Burdett Jones had launched into a philippic againſt the miniſtry, and Mr. Robſon had urged the neceſſity of peace as a remedy for famine and other national calamities—Mr. Pitt diſcuſſed the two leading points of the king's ſpeech. For the relief of the public, in a time of great ſcarcity and diſtreſs, he propoſed two modes, which,

he thought, were simple, practical, and safe: one was, an increase of importation; the other was a combination of œconomy with the use of substitutes for bread. A much better effect, he said, would result from these methods, than from any experiment which, on pretence of correcting the evils of monopoly, might strike at the freedom of trade, and circumscribe the application of industry and capital. Of the real causes of the high price of corn, and other necessaries, some doubts might be entertained; but he was confident that the war had little, if any, influence in producing such an advance. At the beginning of the last harvest we had a smaller stock of grain than usual, in consequence of the general failure of the crops of the year 1799; and, as the late crop of wheat was also small, the greatness of the price might in some measure be accounted for. From these circumstances, he did not imagine that a rapid diminution of price could be expected; but, the more gradual it would be, it was the more likely to be permanent. With regard to the negotiation, he contended that the French had not acted in a fair and honourable manner, or exhibited any symptoms of a sincere desire of peace, and that public faith and policy concurred to justify the conduct of the cabinet.—Mr. Sheridan reprobated the war as the chief cause of the distress of the people, and controverted in some other points the arguments of the minister.—Mr. Grey, after a very severe condemnation of the plans and proceedings of the court, moved for the omission of that part of the address which breathed the spirit of continued war: but the house refused to agree to any alteration.

The commons proceeded, with that diligence which the urgency of the case required, to the adoption of remedial measures. On the following day, they voted bounties on the importation of various kinds of grain; and a committee was appointed to inquire into the causes of the high price of provisions. Bills were brought forward for preventing the exportation of articles of subsistence, and for other purposes connected with the expediency of ample supply.

As a detail of the intervening and attendant debates would exceed our limits, our readers, we hope, will be content with the information, that, in both houses, the idea of fixing a *maximum* for corn was disapproved, and the progress of relief was left to a more legitimate interference; that the reports of the committee suggested hints of useful regulation; that a motion from Mr. Sheridan, proposing a renewal of negotiatory efforts, served only to call forth new exertions of eloquence; that Mr. Tierney, after an extensive review of naval, military, and financial concerns, moved in vain for an inquiry into the state of the nation; and that the *habeas-corpus* act was again suspended, though many speakers strongly denied the necessity of such suspension.

When the necessary bills had received the sanction of the

legislature, the king, on the last day of the year, put an end to the session. He predicted salutary effects from the measures which the two houses had taken for the relief of the public; but, as the subject was not exhausted, he hoped that it would be resumed with the same spirit on the meeting of the imperial parliament. He then referred to the unjustifiable conduct of the Russian emperor *, and hinted his intention of enforcing redress by spirited operations, if the steps which he had already taken should not prove effectual. Before his majesty retired, he ordered the chancellor to read a proclamation, declaring that the individuals who composed the expiring parliament should be the members, on the part of Britain, of the parliament of the united kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland, and that this imperial legislature should assemble on the 22d day of January, 1801.

In honour of the union, various promotions were ordered, and many new titles were conferred; and the king held a grand council, in which some arrangements required by that great event were settled and enforced. To the meeting of the combined parliament the people look forward with eagerness and hope; and it must be the wish of every true patriot, that the first session of the illustrious assembly may be the æra of returning peace and prosperity.

FRANCE.

When we lately treated of the affairs of France, politicians seemed to expect that a peace would soon be concluded between Austria and the republic. The emperor, finding himself endangered by the progress of the enemy, was willing to secure himself by negotiation; and the French expressed a readiness to grant him such terms as he had a right to expect, and also to admit his allies to the benefit of the proposed conferences. Under the expectation that Great-Britain would be comprehended in the treaty, he declined a ratification of the preliminaries signed by the count de St. Julien. The French then menaced him with an immediate renewal of hostilities; and he seemed for a time disposed to have recourse to the same mode of decision. But he had scarcely joined the army, when he agreed to a prolongation of the armistice, in a convention which he authorised the count de Lehrbach to sign at Hohenlinden; and, to give a strong pledge of his pacific intentions, he even consented to deliver up to the republican troops the fortresses of Philipsburg, Ulm, and Ingolstadt, thus leaving his hereditary dominions in a great measure at the mercy of the enemy.

While the armistice continued, the consular government attended with zeal to the preparations for an eventual resumption of the contest, as well as to the concerns of inter-

* See the article of RUSSIA.

nal policy. The views of the diſaffected were checked by ſtrictneſs and vigilance: induſtry and merit, in various departments of art, were encouraged; and the ſciences were not neglected.

As it was the public wiſh that the generality of the emigrants ſhould be favoured, and that their concerns ſhould be adjuſted on a regular baſis, the miniſter of police prepared a report on the ſubject: and the conſuls, adopting his ſuggeſtions, promulgated a decree, providing for the eraſure of all the names from the liſt, and conſequently allowing the return of the emigrants, with an exception of thoſe who had borne arms againſt France, and of ſuch as had been employed in any branch of ſervice by the *ci-devant* French princes, or by the governments hoſtile to the republic. This decree was conſidered by ſome as too extenſive, by others as too limited; but it ſeems to have given ſatisfaction to the majority of the people.

A curious report, exhibiting a view of the ſtate of France and a retroſpect of the tranſactions of the year, was preſented to the legiſlative body on the 22d of November laſt. A gloomy ſketch was drawn of the ſtate of the republic at the time of the elevation of Bonaparte to the conſulate; and it was affirmed, that danger and diſtreſs rendered peace the firſt want and the moſt ardent wiſh of the nation. The fruſtration of that wiſh, chiefly by the animoſity of the Britiſh cabinet, tended to produce that indignant energy which led the French ſoldiers to new victories, and revived the drooping ſpirits of the people. Quickly was the rebellion in the weſt cruſhed; and the government, by allaying the diſcontent of the inhabitants, provided againſt the return of inſurrection. The general ſucceſs of the war exceeded all expectation. Four armies maintained themſelves in an uninterrupted chain, from the line formed by the Pruſſian neutrality to the centre of Italy. The guardian genius of France had ſaved the army of the eaſt from the execution of a compact which would have enſlaved it to England. Auſtria was again compelled to deſiſt from hoſtilities, and ſeemed to be no longer inclined to ſacrifice the tranquillity of the continent to the ambition of the deſpots of the ſeas. The French army and navy had been re organiſed and improved by judicious regulations. The conduct of the republic towards neutral ſtates manifeſted a greater degree of juſtice and impartiality than had before prevailed; and the principles which it recommended were ſuch as claimed univerſal imitation. The attention paid to every important concern was ſedulous and unrelaxed. The finances had been reſcued from a ſtate of confuſion, and would in future be ſubject to a regular ſyſtem, which would provide for every exigency, and re-eſtabliſh the national credit. A new code of civil legiſlation was on the point of being completed; the modes of public inſtruction had been improved; the

arts had been cultivated with redoubled zeal; trade and manufactures were reviving from a ſtate of languor; and a better proſpect began to open in every direction. Such were the ſtatements, views, and predictions, of the three counſellors of ſtate (Regnier, Najac, and Gouvion St. Cyr), who were ordered to give an account of the ſituation of the republic.

On the expiration of the truce, the court of Vienna proteſting againſt a ſeparate treaty with France, the war was renewed with apparent alacrity. The troops under Augereau had a conflict with thoſe of Mentz at Aſchaffenburg, on the 24th of November; and, on the 29th, Moreau, to whoſe exertions the French chiefly truſted for the humiliation of his imperial majeſty, re-commenced hoſtilities near the river Inn. The works of Wafferburg were quickly forced by his men; but, on the 1ſt of December, he was leſs ſucceſsful in a battle with the archduke John, who advanced with three columns to attack him near Haag. The action was obſtinate, and the Auſtrians were repeatedly driven back; but the French were at length defeated. In an engagement at Roſenheim, on the ſame day, the corps of the prince de Condé acquired reputation by a diſplay of courage and firmneſs; and, on this occaſion, the prince's ſon and the duke d'Angoulême exerted themſelves with conſiderable effect in repelling the enemy. Encouraged by this ſucceſs, the archduke ſoon riſqued another conflict. On the 3d, he aſſaulted the poſt of Hohenlinden, memorable for the ſignature of the laſt convention. A heavy fall of ſnow and ſleet had ſo retarded his march, that only the central column had arrived at the place of deſtination at a time when all the diviſions ought to have been ready to act; and the left, under general Riſch, loſt its way. One diviſion of the French, conducted by Richepanſe, pierced between the left and the centre, reached the great road behind the centre, and aſſaulted the left flank and rear of that column, at a time when it had formed in front, and had commenced an attack. The Auſtrians fought for ſeveral hours with alertneſs and gallantry; but, their centre being repelled by the impetuoſity of the republicans, great confuſion enſued. Their left wing was alſo defeated; and the battle ſeemed to be completely decided in favour of the French, when a vigorous attempt was made by the right wing to wreſt from them the honours of victory. Grenier ſuſtained this unexpected charge with firmneſs; and, being well ſupported, threw his adverſaries into the utmoſt diſorder. The baffled troops retired towards the heights of Ramſau, with very heavy loſs; and general Kienmayer, being attacked on his march by a *corps* from Aerding, likewiſe ſuffered ſeverely in that retreat, to which he was driven by intelligence of the diſaſter that had befallen the main army. Above 10,000 of the Auſtrians, on this unfortunate day,

are ſuppoſed to have been killed or made priſoners: of the French about 3000 loſt their lives or were wounded. Klenau and the other Auſtrian generals are accuſed of having imprudently extended their lines, ſo as to give Moreau a deciſive advantage. The victorious republicans purſued the fugitives with little intermiſſion, and, after ſome conflicts which we need not ſpecify, took poſſeſſion of the city of Saltzburg. Priſoners, artillery, and various ſtores, daily accrued to them; and their progreſs menaced the emperor with the conqueſt of his capital.

Three other armies (the Gallo-Batavian army, that of the Griſons, and that of Italy) were in the mean time employed, though with leſs brilliant ſucceſs, in promoting the cauſe of the republic. Augereau gained an important advantage near Bamberg, on the day which was diſtinguiſhed by the battle of Hohenlinden; and, in other engagements, he prevailed over the imperial forces. Macdonald, defying the obſtacles which an Alpine winter preſented, paſſed from the country of the Griſons into the Valteline, drove the enemy before him, and opened a communication with the army of Italy. A part of the laſt-mentioned force, under Dupont, defeated the Auſtrians at Maſcaria; and, on the 26th of December, the republicans paſſed the Mincio after an obſtinate conteſt, though on the preceding day they had loſt many men in fruitleſs efforts for that purpoſe. Lieutenant-general Delmas, in attempting to paſs near Monzanbano, was expoſed to a ſevere attack; but he ſoon baffled his adverſaries, and croſſed the ſtream. Dupont, when he had effected a paſſage near Molino, was haraſſed by a charge ſo vigorous, that he would probably have been obliged to retire, if he had not been powerfully aided by Gazan with a freſh diviſion. On the following day, new advantages were obtained; and, in theſe conflicts, above 7000 Auſtrians were captured.

While extreme conſternation prevailed at Vienna, the archduke Charles repaired to the camp, to animate the troops to freſh exertions: but, inſtead of attacking the enemy, a due ſenſe of the inutility of further conteſt induced him to propoſe an armiſtice, which was concluded at Steyer on the 25th of December. Though the French had acted diſhonourably in diſmantling the towns which had been delivered to them merely as pledges by the convention of Hohenlinden, the emperor now conſented to the ſurrender of many other poſts, relying on the promiſe of reſtitution. Indeed, he was ſo humbled by the ſucceſs of the foe, that he declared himſelf ready to detach himſelf from his allies, and recede from his former determination of agreeing to no other than a general peace. The Britiſh court, in conſideration of the perilous predicament in which he ſtood, releaſed him from his engagements; and it is probable that a treaty between him and the French will ſoon be adjuſted at Luneville.

At this critical period, while the emperor was in danger of losing his territories, his formidable adversary, the chief consul, incurred the risque of a loss of life. On the 24th of December, when he was on his way to a place of theatrical amusement, a sudden explosion broke the windows of his carriage, killed several persons, and wounded others. This mischief was occasioned by a barrel, in which were combustibles and a kind of musquet, placed on a small carriage that was so disposed as to obstruct the passage through the street. In all governments, plots are sometimes fabricated to dupe the people; but that this was a real conspiracy is generally believed, and the Jacobins are supposed to have contrived it. Many individuals were apprehended on suspicion of being concerned in the plot; and some, after a judicial process, have been condemned to death: but we have not yet been informed of the execution of the sentence.

GERMANY.

Our communication with this country was supposed to be endangered when the king of Prussia, in the month of November, took possession of the bailiwic of Ritzebuttel, on pretence of an invasion of the rights of neutrality in the capture of an Embden ship by the English, by whom it had been carried into Cuxhaven, a port belonging to the Hamburghers. The senate, alarmed at the menaces of that prince, endeavoured to pacify him by procuring a restitution of the vessel; but he persisted in his intention of garrisoning Cuxhaven, though he promised to pay due respect to the trade and interests of the inhabitants. This prince is said to have promoted the late northern confederacy; but he disavows all views of hostility against Great-Britain. The sincerity of his declarations may perhaps be questioned by those who reflect on his friendly intercourse with our enemies.

RUSSIA.

Instigated by French counsels, impelled by caprice, or stimulated by ambition, the northern emperor demanded the island of Malta from the English, as he enjoyed the title of grand master of the knightly order. They refused to admit his pretensions; and their opposition to his will so inflamed his resentment, that he not only ordered an embargo to be laid (in November last) on all British ships in his harbours, but subjected the seamen to imprisonment and other severities of treatment.

Our court in vain remonstrated against these arbitrary proceedings: Paul declared that the embargo should be continued, and menaced his late allies with further marks of his displeasure. Taking advantage of the disgust of the courts of Copenhagen and Stockholm at our exercise of the right of naval search, he urged them to accede to an armed neutrality, into which they were too easily drawn. Having received intelligence of this league, his Britannic majesty

ordered, on the 14th of January, 1801, that all the ſhips of the three nations, which were already in his ports or ſhould afterwards arrive, ſhould be ſtrictly detained. To repreſs the eventual hoſtilities of the confederates, great exertions are neceſſary; but we may truſt to our naval ſtrength, and diſregard their efforts.

ITALY.

The only incidents of which we have occaſion to take notice under this head, relate to Tuſcany. After the battle of Marengo, the French had acquieſced in the neutrality of the duchy, without inſiſting on the diſſolution of that armed corps which the inhabitants had formed for the defence of the country. But, being deſirous of re-poſſeſſing that territory, they pretended that frequent outrages and depredations had been committed in the adjoining diſtricts by the Tuſcan *brigands* or robbers (as they ſtyled the armed corps above-mentioned), and deſired Sommariva, who acted as commander, to diſarm and diſmiſs them without delay. This inſolent requiſition not being followed by prompt compliance, general Brune ſent a detachment under Dupont to take poſſeſſion of the duchy. This officer entered Florence on the 15th of October, the Tuſcans not venturing to obſtruct his march. Brigadier Clement, ſoon after, perſuaded the Auſtrian troops at Leghorn to ſurrender that town to him, on his aſſenting to a convention for the continuance of the Tuſcan government, and the ſecurity of privileges and of property; but this agreement was not ſcrupulouſly obſerved, though the Britiſh merchants were fortunate in preſerving the greater part of their effects, by the convenience of the ſhips in the harbour. Strong parties were now ſent out againſt the armed Tuſcans at Arezzo and other places; and, as ſome reſiſtance was made by the latter, they were not ſubdued or diſperſed without bloodſhed.

GREECE.

It is not the leaſt remarkable circumſtance in the politics of the times, that two emperors, Paul and Selim, have concurred in the eſtabliſhment of a republic, conſiſting of Corfu, Cephalonia, and other iſlands near the Grecian coaſt. It is ſtyled the Ionian republic, and will enjoy a nominal independence under the protection of thoſe potentates.

EGYPT.

The French general Menou appears to be very actively and zealouſly employed in fortifying the chief Egyptian towns, in regulating both the civil and military departments, and improving the ſtate of the country. The grand vizir and ſir Sidney Smith have endeavoured, without effect, to draw him into an agreement for the evacuation of the territory. Unwilling to abandon a province which he conſiders as a ſcene of French glory, but which many will

juſtly denominate a ſcene of French barbarity, he provides for its retention with as much ſolicitude as if he had been the conqueror of the country. In a letter of the 1ſt of November, addreſſed to the chief conſul, he ſpeaks in high terms of his proceedings and regulations; but we muſt make allowance for the gaſconade and oſtentation for which his countrymen are notorious.

The troops that landed near Ferrol and threatened Cadiz, are ſaid to be deſtined for Egypt; and we hope that they will be more effectively employed than they were in the expedition to Spain. Without their aid, the Turks are unequal to the taſk of diſlodging the poſſeſſors of Grand-Cairo and Alexandria. If Egypt ſhould be ſubdued, our all, the grand ſignor may perhaps be induced to reſign his pretenſions to the Engliſh, under whoſe foſtering care it would ſoon become a very valuable province.

NORTH-AMERICA.

After a long courſe of diſpute not abſolutely hoſtile, the United States and the French republic have concluded a treaty of peace and commerce. The trade of both nations will be conducted on terms of equality; and it is particularly provided, that, if one of the two parties ſhould be at war, and the other at peace, there ſhall be no viſitation or ſearch of the ſhips of the neutral ſtate, when they ſail under convoy. In this inſtance, they mutually relinquiſh a claim without denying the exiſtence of the right; but, in the official report of the affairs of France, prepared by Regnier and his aſſociates, it is inſinuated that no ſuch right exiſts.

Having thus brought down the public affairs of the world in general, and of Great-Britain in particular, to the cloſe of the eighteenth century, we are inclined to offer ſome retroſpective as well as proſpective remarks which have occurred to us in the courſe of momentary reflexion. The century which has recently expired was diſtinguiſhed by a variety of memorable events in the earlier part of its progreſs; and, in the laſt ten years, it exhibited perhaps a more ſtupendous ſcene than the world ever before witneſſed. One circumſtance has attended it through the greater part of its courſe; it began with war, and it terminated with war. Hence ariſes a melancholy reflexion, that a practice which, it might be ſuppoſed, could only exiſt in the abſence of civiliſation, has been found to prevail in an age of refinement, when the arts and ſciences have been improved, when morality has been purified and ſublimated, and religion has been in a great meaſure diveſted of bigotry and ſuperſtition. If we were not witneſſes of this ſtrange degradation of the human underſtanding, we ſhould not be diſpoſed to give credit to an abſurdity ſo extravagant and ſo

disgraceful. When we consider, that

——— tigris agit rabidâ cum tigride pacem
Perpetuam, sævis inter se convenit ursis—

we may naturally express our surprise, that beings of a superior order, those in whom is inherent a portion of ethereal fire, who, though infinitely inferior to the Deity, are removed far above the level of brutes, should sink into a course of action of which mere quadrupeds might feel the folly and the iniquity. But it is useless to argue on this subject; for the advocates of human slaughter, though they affect a high degree of religion, have no idea of its genuine dictates and its legitimate impressions, and are, in the strict sense of the phrase, practical atheists. Such men impudently call it blasphemy to declaim against war; but every man of sense and humanity will maintain a contrary opinion.

That spirit of despotism which has ever waged war against human freedom and happiness, exerted itself at the beginning of the eighteenth century in the person of Louis XIV. of France, who, not content with enslaving his subjects, encroached on the liberties of other nations, and systematically invaded the general rights of mankind. But that haughty and unfeeling tyrant, near the close of his reign, was deservedly reduced to a state of humiliation, so as to become an object of pity to contemporary princes. During his reign, however, the arts and sciences received some encouragement, more indeed from his vanity than from his taste or judgment. His death gave some repose to Europe; and the arts of peace revived. But, though his successor was of a less ambitious and more pacific disposition, he, on various pretences, embarked in unnecessary wars. At one time he laboured to crush or depress the house of Austria; at another time, he provoked Great-Britain to a rupture by encroaching on her colonial possessions. The enterprising spirit of the great Frederic of Prussia kindled also, at different periods, the flames of war; but he endeavoured to make some atonement to his people by salutary reforms and useful institutions, and by a general melioration of their state. The czarina Catharine II. followed a similar plan; and, while her ambition was prodigal of blood, her uncontrolled authority was, in many instances, subservient to the public good. The concurrence of these two potentates with the devout Maria Theresa in the partition of Poland reflected disgrace on the age in which it took place, and on the neighbouring princes who could tamely suffer such injustice to be exercised. From the affected regularity and solemnity in which the measure was enforced, it taught the nations of the world, that princes, in a refined age, could make a mockery of religion and humanity, of national independence and public privileges, and measure right by the rule of power, with a degree of iniquity equal to that of the

moſt ferocious chieftains of barbarous times. From this ſcene let us turn our eyes to France, which, at the acceſſion of Louis XVI, was in a ſtate favourable to the progreſs of freedom. That monarch was humane and well diſpoſed, and did not wiſh to act the part of a tyrant; and, under his auſpices, an example of reform might have been given with effect to the princes of the time, had not Great-Britain, forgetful of the principles which raiſed the houſe of Hanover to the throne, precipitated herſelf into a rupture with her colonial ſubjects. By aſſiſting the diſcontented Americans, the ill-adviſed Louis excited among his people a ſtrong paſſion for liberty; and, when he convoked the ſtates-general of the realm, the eagerneſs of the public to take advantage of the opportunity led to diſorder and confuſion, as perſons who have long been blind know not how to conduct themſelves at the firſt glare of light. The diſorder was promoted by ambitious demagogues, whoſe arts and intrigues kindled a flame which has not yet been extinguiſhed. The madneſs of the revolutionary leaders, not being ſuffered to exhauſt itſelf at home, diffuſed its effects over Europe; and the atrocities committed in France by a Jacobin faction under the maſk of liberty, damped the ardour of the friends of rational reform, furniſhed the rulers even of free nations with a pretence for ſtrengthening the hands of government, and produced a general inclination to ſubmit to new reſtraints, rather than riſque the horrors of confuſion and anarchy. Such ſeemed to be the ſtate of the public mind at the concluſion of the eighteenth century; and ſuch were the ill effects of a revolution, which, under judicious management, might have gradually operated to univerſal benefit.

In ſpeculating on the probable changes which may attend the progreſs of the nineteenth century, we do not flatter ourſelves or our poſterity with any ſignal or extraordinary improvement of the general condition of mankind. Refinement has not, in a long courſe of ages, produced the advantages which might have been expected to flow from it: why then ſhould we dream of any ſtriking change which it may effect within the ſmall compaſs of one hundred years? The improvement of the theory of religion and morality has not had a correſpondent influence on the practice. The increaſing profundity of ſcientific reſearch has not been ſo diffuſively beneficial as it might have been under proper direction. A more enlarged inſight into the legitimate arts of government, a greater portion of ſkill in the liberal and mechanical arts, a more intimate acquaintance with the means of augmenting the accommodations of ſociety, have not, we obſerve with deep but unavailing regret, been attended with the effects which ſuch attainments ſeemed calculated to produce. Why then ſhould we affect to prognoſticate a ſpeedy or a great improvement in

these reſpects? That ſome changes may occur in the period to which we allude, there is no reaſon to doubt: but we may diſpute the extent of their utility. When the agitations conſequent on the ſtorm of the French revolution ſhall have ſubſided, ſuch a ſpirit of moderation may ariſe, as may be favourable to political improvement. While the enormities of Jacobiniſm may have made ſo ſtrong an impreſſion on the minds of men, that the raſhneſs of indiſcriminate reform will meet with inſtant oppoſition, princes may alſo become more ſenſible than they have hitherto been of the expediency of promoting the happineſs of their ſubjects, not merely that of the higher claſſes, but of thoſe leſs elevated individuals who have as great a claim to juſtice and protection, to the comforts of life, and to that freedom of action which is not incompatible with the reſtraints of ſociety, as the counſellors of kings and the rulers of nations. Under the auſpices of patriotic and philanthropic ſovereigns, the ſciences which inform and enlighten, the arts which poliſh, the morality and devotion which purify mankind, may be more regularly purſued and more efficaciouſly cultivated. A more judicious ſyſtem of education, founded on numerous hints recently ſuggeſted, may improve both the minds and perſons of the riſing generation. The paſſions may be more ſtudiouſly repreſſed; the depravity which, we are taught to believe, has been inherent in human beings ſince the fall of their progenitor, may be more rigorouſly corrected. We might extend theſe remarks to a great length by ſpeaking of thoſe changes to which a ſanguine zeal might look forward; but ſuch ſpeculations are rather the offspring of excurſive fancy, than the dictates of prophecy; and it may be ſaid, though the opinion may be thought to border on unneceſſary deſpondence, that the improvements which we have mentioned are merely poſſible, not probable. Thoſe paſſions which have rendered the greateſt part of the world, for ages, a ſcene of folly, iniquity, and vice, will perhaps continue to prevail over reaſon and prudence, over good ſenſe and philoſophy. Let every performer on the theatre of life endeavour to act the part allotted to him with judgment and propriety; and the ſtate of mankind will then be eſſentially improved: but, as ſuch endeavours, from the creation of the world to the preſent time, have by no means been general, we have little reaſon to indulge the pleaſing expectation. This, we allow, is not an enlivening or a flattering picture; but we earneſtly wiſh that the proſpect may brighten, and that the future ſcene may be arrayed in more attractive colours.

ERRATUM.

P. 221, l. 12. for *caſat* read *cavat*.

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THE END OF THE THIRTIETH VOLUME.

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